

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOL. XXVI.

FEBRUARY, 1898.

No. 5.

OFFICERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

JOHN H. VINCENT, *Chancellor*, 87 West Genesee Street, Buffalo, N. Y. All "personal" letters should be so marked on envelope. LEWIS MILLEN, *President*. JESSE L. HURLBUT, *Principal*. *Counselors*: LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.; BISHOP H. W. WARREN, D. D.; J. M. GIBSON, D. D.; W. C. WILKINSON, D. D.; EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.; JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D. MISS K. F. KIMBALL, *Executive Secretary*. A. M. MARTIN, *General Secretary*.

REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE RHINE COUNTRY.*

BY H. A. GUERBER.

"THE Rhine is swift like the Rhone," says Victor Hugo, "broad like the Loire, pent up between high banks like the Meuse, winding like the Seine, clear and green like the Somme, historical like the Tiber, majestic like the Danube, weird like the Nile, glittering with gold like an American river, and peopled with fables and phantoms like an Asiatic stream."

To the above poetical statement add that the Rhine is composed of about twenty thousand streams, drains an area of seventy-five thousand square miles, is between seven and eight hundred miles long, falls nearly eight thousand feet, connects the Alps with the sea, and that it is one of the principal waterways of Europe. A system of canals, begun in the first century of our era and continued to date, establishes communication with the Rhone and the Danube, and

through them with nearly all the streams and seas of Europe.

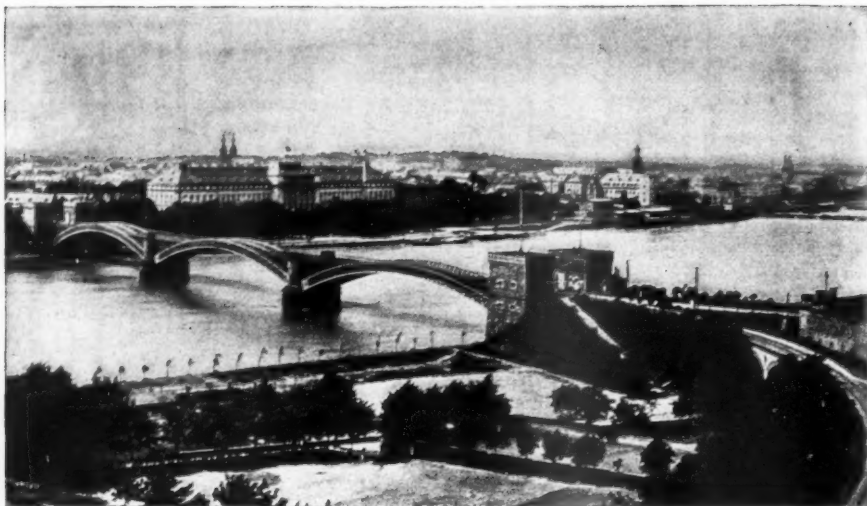
If besides this we take into consideration that, as has been said, "it would require no great straining to write a history of this ma-



GODESBERG CASTLE.

jestic river which would also be a history of the western half of continental Europe," we will gain some idea of the magnitude of the subject comprised in the title of this article.

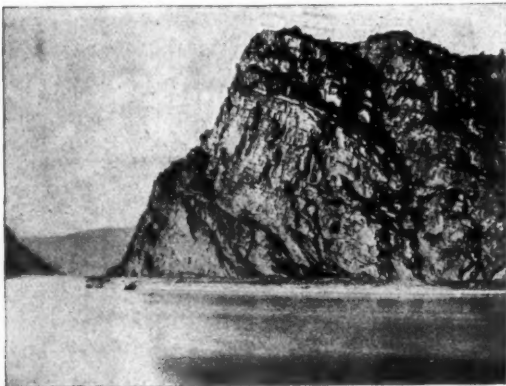
*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.



KOBLENZ: THE PALACE.

It is impossible in this small space to do more than glance over the interesting country and events which these words call up to memory, so readers are of necessity referred to European history and literature, art books, and collections of legends for adequate information on the varied topics concerning the Rhine.* Rising in Switzerland, the headwaters of this stream flow

the Vorder Rhine, rises on Mount Saint Gotthard¹ (not very far from the sources of the Rhone), and falling more than twelve hundred feet within the first twelve miles of its course forms numerous picturesque cascades. It winds through wild ravines and gathers the waters of many small streams as it dashes along its way. At Chur² the united waters of the three Rhine streams first become navigable. A few miles further on, the river marks the boundary between Switzerland and the Austrian Tyrol,³ whence it receives one important tributary, the Ill.⁴ Then after broadening out to form the Lake of Constance, the Rhine, further swollen by sundry streams, plunges over the Jura barrier in three falls fifty to sixty feet high. These falls of Schaffhausen⁵ were formerly more imposing, for the waters have gradually worn away the huge rocks. The deafening roar—still very awe-inspiring—and the rainbow effects of the spray were first mentioned by early Latin writers.



THE LORELEI ROCK.

from about one hundred and fifty glaciers, remains of the ice age. The main feeder,

A few miles below, the foaming river forms lesser cataracts and rapids. Along the Swiss and German frontier, from about

*See the author's "Legends of the Rhine," "Myths of Northern Lands," "Legends of the Middle Ages," and "Stories of the Wagner Opera."



VIEW OF CONSTANCE FROM THE CATHEDRAL.

Kaiserstuhl⁶ to Basel, the river makes so many twists and turns that it almost trebles the distance from the Lake of Constance to the last-named city. Along this stretch it receives several tributaries, the most important being the Aar, which, with its accretions, drains the Bernese Oberland⁷ and all the larger Swiss lakes except that of Geneva. At Basel the Rhine takes a sudden turn to the north.

Instead of rushing dizzily along over jagged rocks and through narrow ravines, it broadens out and, becoming shallow, divides so as to form numerous islands. Navigation, practicable only from Chur to Schaffhausen, is resumed at Basel, from which point it extends uninterrupted to the sea. Owing to modern engineering, which has forced its waters into straighter, narrower channels, towns which formerly stood on the

Rhine are now connected with it only by canals. One of these cities is Strassburg, the site of a beautiful cathedral, a prosperous university, and the Gutenberg monument.

The Rhine valley between Basel and Mannheim⁸ is evidently the bed of an ancient lake, whose shores were once formed by the picturesque ranges of the Vosges⁹ and of the Black Forest. Flowing along this valley, the Rhine passes Spire,¹⁰ an



WORMS CATHEDRAL.

ancient Roman city, the home of many German emperors (who are buried in the beautiful cathedral where Saint Bernard preached the second crusade), and the place where the first tournament was held. Then it flows on to Mannheim, one of the most commercial but least interesting towns on the Rhine, where, owing to numerous accretions, it is three times as broad as at Basel. A little further on the mighty river sweeps by the ancient imperial city of Worms, whose walls it once bathed. This city, also the capital and tomb of many of the German emperors, numbered more than seventy thousand inhabitants in the days of Frederic Barbarossa, but now boasts only

about ten thousand. It is visited mainly for its cathedral, for its historic associations, and for the sake of the grand Luther monument, erected in the middle of this century.

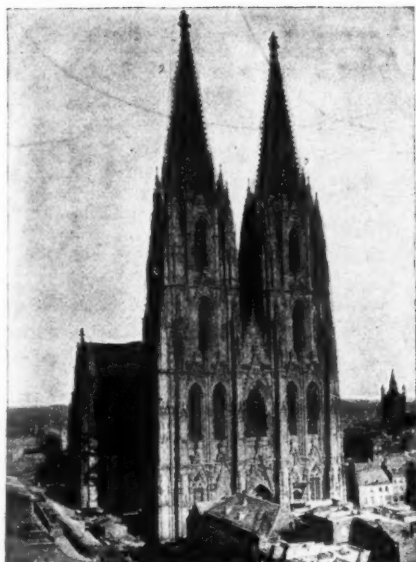
The Main joins the Rhine at Mainz,¹¹ a town founded by the Romans before our era and still possessing many remains of their occupation. Its cathedral, begun in 978, was six times a prey to fire. Alternately used as barracks, stables for cavalry, a magazine for powder and provisions, and even as a slaughter-house, it is nevertheless one of the finest and most interesting specimens of medieval architecture. Flowing westward through the Taunus¹² range, the Rhine changes again to a northern course

at Bingen, now famous for its potash, but once dreaded on account of a whirlpool, whose dangers have been almost nullified by modern blasting and engineering. Vessels of all sizes now sail past it unharmed, but for many years no boatman braved its perils until he had visited the shrine of some saint and made a solemn vow.

Beyond Mainz the river enters the most picturesque part of its course in Germany, and winds its way between volcanic mountains. They hem it in so closely that there is barely room in the narrow valley for the deep stream, a narrow causeway, and the railroads on either side which have effected such a change in Rhine commerce. Geologically this is probably the oldest portion of the river's course, for among these mountains are found curious fossils and more recent volcanic formations, such as extensive beds of pumice-stone, which are duly exploited. All along the ninety miles which separate Mainz from Bonn picturesque towns and villages rise tier on tier on either side



ANDERNACH: THE WATCH TOWER.



COLOGNE CATHEDRAL.

the valley. The banks are so steep that the whole slope is often terraced, and every inch of ground not occupied by some old building is devoted to the culture of the grapes from which the Rhine wines are made. Each mountain peak, or spur, as well as the multitudinous lateral valleys, fairly bristle with fortresses and ruined castles, famous in history and literature, which add a romantic interest to the beautiful scenery. At Coblenz, the old Roman camp, and the junction of the Rhine and the Moselle, three bridges span the former stream. The Ehrenbreitstein,¹³ Germany's impregnable fortress, rises threateningly directly opposite this city, which is deemed one of the fairest of the region.

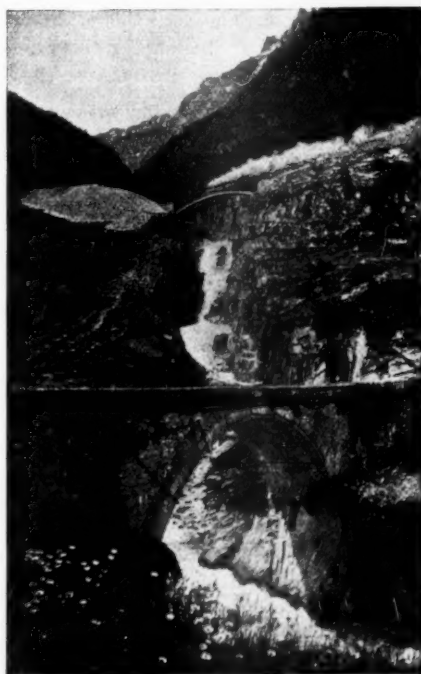
Closing in again a little further beyond, at Andernach,¹⁴ the Rhine resumes its ravine-like course, passes the towering Lorelei¹⁵ rock, where the river siren was supposed to sit, combing her golden hair and singing a marvelous song to lure the mariners on to destruction. Here the river seems to have no issue, but a sudden turn shows a new and equally picturesque stretch, which extends to Bonn. This city, also a Roman camp, is the birthplace of Beethoven, and

the site of a famous university where, among other noted men, Niebuhr¹⁶ and Schlegel taught. Geologists tell us that the Rhine joined the primeval ocean at Bonn, where the valley becomes wide and the country rolling.

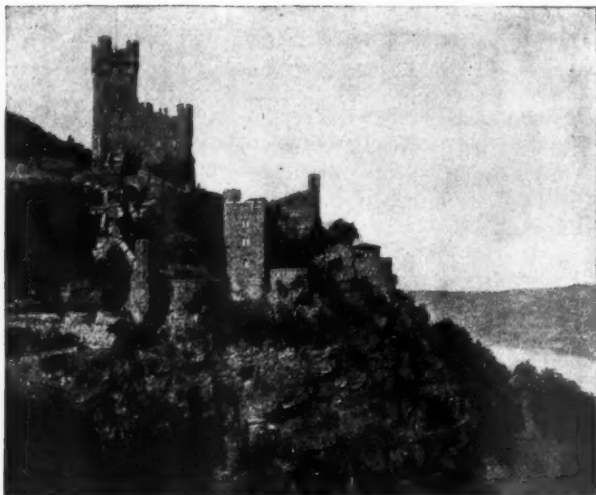
After passing Cologne, with its famous cathedral and quaint churches, and Düsseldorf, where remains of ancient German art form the chief attraction to tourists, the Rhine landscape grows flat and uninteresting and the current sluggish. In Holland the country lies below the level of the river, which here flows between huge embankments.

After dividing four times, and sending its waters into the Meuse by the Waal and Leck and into the Zuydersee by the Yssel,¹⁷ the Rhine passes the historical towns of Utrecht and Leyden, and from a broad, majestic river dwindles down into such an insignificant stream that it is pumped into the sea.

Passing through different countries, the



SAINT GOTTHARD: CASCADE DE WYLER.

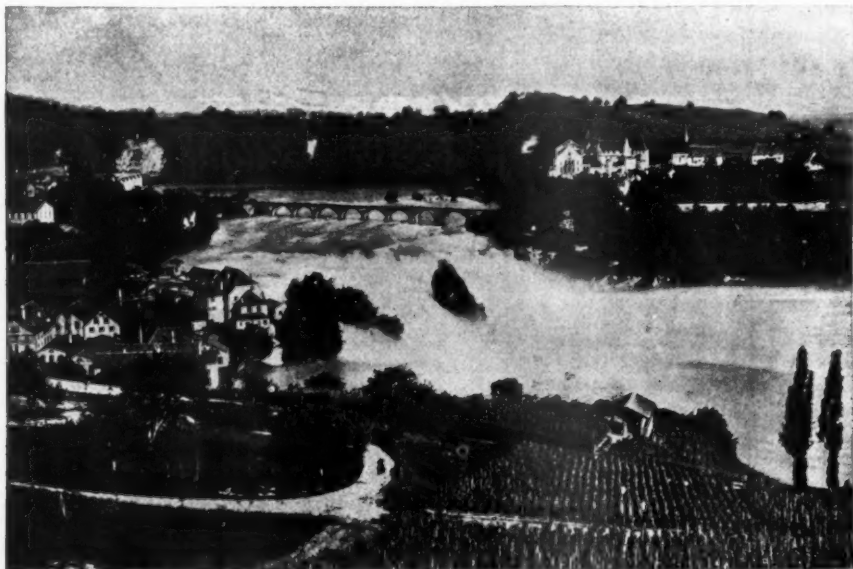


SONNECK CASTLE.

Rhine seems to partake of the character of the inhabitants. In Switzerland it is strong, free, and picturesque, in Germany alternately useful and romantic, and in Holland slow, persistent, and strictly utilitarian. The illustrations accompanying this article give but a faint idea of a scenery so varied

During the second period the Rhine valley was inhabited by Celts, who, fleeing before the Teutons, vanished from Germany about four centuries before Christ. The newcomers practiced the Scandinavian religion, which left traces in literature and in our nomenclature of the days of the week. In

and charming that it yearly attracts from one to two million tourists. They principally visit the stretch between Cologne and Mainz in Germany, and the headwaters in Switzerland. Besides natural charms, the Rhine's historical associations greatly enhance its attractions. For convenience' sake this history is divided into four periods. The first includes the antediluvian, perhaps pre-Adamite, epoch, the time of fossils and of volcanic activity in the region between Mainz and Bonn.



SCHAFFHAUSEN: FALLS OF THE RHINE.

censed by Teutonic incursions, the Romans finally sent Cæsar northward to drive them back. He established camps all along the Rhine, which was a boundary of the Roman Empire for two hundred years. Connected by well-built roads, these camps ultimately became famous cities. The Romans brought thither their own culture and religion, and left frequent traces of their occupation. During the Christian persecutions a whole legion suffered martyrdom at Cologne, where their bones still deck St. Gereon's Church.

After beholding a cross in the skies near Mainz, Constantine transferred his capital to Byzantium, and a little later the barbarians began crossing the Rhine to seek homes elsewhere. The early Frankish kings, the Merovingians, were overrun by the Huns, whose cruelty is recorded in Germany's greatest epic, the *Nibelungenlied*,¹⁸ and in many legends. The Huns were followed by the Alemanni, whom Clovis defeated at Tolbiac, after making his famous vow.¹⁹ During the rule of his successors, the Rhine country relapsed into heathenism, whence it was rescued by Irish missionaries.

The third period, the golden age of France and Germany, begins with Charlemagne, who conquered the Teutons, destroyed the Irminsul, and lived in turn at Worms, Ingelheim, and Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen), where he was buried. A doughty warrior, the prince of good fellows, and an enlightened legislator, Charlemagne is the hero of countless legends.

Charlemagne's work was undone by his successors, for his son destroyed his collection of heathen poems and his grandsons divided his realm into Germany, France, and Italy. As he had predicted, the Normans soon came up the Rhine, and they and the returning Huns left ruin and lamentation in their wake. The nobles took advantage of the incapacity of subsequent rulers to extend their power, and Hatto,²⁰ of Rat Tower fame, the hero of Southey's poem, tyrannized over all the people. Emboldened by impunity, the nobles finally decreed that the German crown should be elective, and the second monarch of their choice is said

to have witnessed the duel between Lohengrin²¹ and Telramund at Cleves. Utilizing in war preparations a nine years' truce purchased from the Huns, this king defeated them so sorely that they ceased to devastate the Rhine country, which again became a center of culture.

When Peter the Hermit preached the first crusade the turbulent nobles gladly assumed the cross. It is estimated that during the following two hundred years about six millions of Germany's best fighting men went eastward.

Germany's favorite hero is Frederic Barbarossa, who, after warring against unruly vassals, transferred the relics of the Three Kings²² from Milan to Cologne, where they became the goal of pious pilgrimages. Although Frederic perished in Syria, the people refused to believe he was dead, and tradition claims that he is sleeping in his palace vaults, or in the Kyffhäuser Mountain, to arise when Germany needs him.

Constant feuds between robber-knights made traveling so unsafe, except during the Truce of God,²³ that the towns, having meanwhile attained importance, were forced to maintain private armies until the Hanseatic League was formed. All the knights were not pilferers, however, for along the Rhine they kept relays of horses and oxen to tow boats up-stream, and protected and entertained travelers in exchange for toll.

Although plague and warfare acted like a blight on the country, literature flourished, thanks to the Rhine paper manufactories, which permitted the multiplication of favorite romances.

Baronial tyranny became so galling under the Hapsburgs that the Swiss revolted and fought until they won complete freedom. The romantic episode of William Tell belongs to this period, and tourists often visit his chapel on Lake Lucerne.

The fourth period begins with the death of Huss at Constance and the wars of religion in Germany. The first cannons having been cast shortly before in Cologne, they now came into use, battering down fortresses hitherto deemed impregnable. When the Hussite wars ended, Maximilian

suppressed brigandage, restored order, and encouraged commerce. He also fostered learning, which Gutenberg's recent discovery was to make accessible to all. Fust, at Mainz, furnished capital for the printing of the first Latin Bible, and when the people saw how rapidly precisely similar copies were turned out they whispered that Fust was in league with Satan. This report gave rise to the Faust legend immortalized by Goethe.

The first German Bible, printed at Spire (1472), prepared men's minds for Luther's ninety-five theses, which were publicly burned at Cologne shortly before the Diet of Worms convicted him of heresy. For years wars of religion desolated the Rhine region, leaving countless ruins besides the famous Godesberg Castle. The Thirty Years' War reduced the population from nearly seventeen to less than four millions, and left the survivors in such straits that some resorted to cannibalism. At the end of this war republics were formed at the source and mouth of the Rhine, which became the German frontier. Peace could not last long, however, for Louis XIV., not content with the possession of Alsace, seized Strassburg, which France kept nearly two hundred years. The wars of the Austrian Succession and Seven Years' also left indelible marks on the Rhine region, through which Voltaire passed on his way to visit Frederic the Great, leaving his name carved on the tower of the Strassburg Cathedral, where it is still faintly legible.

Louis XIV.'s extravagance, unfortunately copied by Germans, resulted in the French Revolution. Its first victims were the Swiss Guards whose heroic death is commemorated by the Lion of Lucerne. Horror for this and similar outrages kindled war in Europe; but before the Germans were ready French armies took Mainz, Stuttgart, and Frankfort. The wanton cruelty of the invaders made the peasants rise in wrath and drive them back across the Rhine.

Although the whole left bank of this river was now conceded to France, Napoleon's ambition soon caused new wars, at the end of which the old German Empire ceased to

exist, and many princes joined the Rheinbund. But Napoleon's career was not ended, and after the disastrous Russian campaign he was forced to face all Europe at Leipsic. Undaunted by defeat, he refused to accept the Rhine, Alps, Pyrenees, and the sea as France's boundaries, so the war continued. On New Year's Day, 1814, Blücher stood in the Pfalz Castle, watching his army cross the Rhine, and about a year later he helped Wellington at Waterloo and won back the lower Rhine.

In 1817 the first steamship plowed the Rhine, where free navigation was established only in 1869.

In 1870 a dispute about the Spanish succession provoked the Franco-Prussian War. To the surprise and dismay of the French, the German states, joining Prussia, sent their combined forces over the Rhine. Unprepared for war and badly generaleed, the French were completely crushed and Napoleon III. surrendered at the battle of Sedan. The German army marched on to besiege Paris, and at Versailles the new German Empire was proclaimed and William, king of Prussia, was hailed emperor. France was forced to pay a huge war indemnity and give up Alsace and Lorraine. The sufferings this war entailed upon both nations created much bitter feeling, and even now, when asked whether certain towns in the ceded provinces are in Germany, a Frenchman invariably answers that they are in Alsace or Lorraine, as the case may be, rather than acknowledge that they belong to the Germans.

On coming home, and while crossing the Rhine, which had again become a German river, the troops heartily sang "*Die Wacht am Rhein*." Since then the Rhine country has been given up to ordinary pursuits, and in 1883 a Peace Festival was held at Niederwald, where the emperor unveiled a beautiful monument commemorating the unification of Germany. During the past few years it has been visited by tourists from every clime, who on beholding the matchless river flowing near it cannot refrain from hoping that the peace and unity the monument typifies may never again be broken.

COLONIAL HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES.

BY ALICE MORSE EARLE.

IN recounting the various influences which led to the success of the Americans in the War of Independence, such as their skill in woodcraft and marksmanship, their powers of endurance, acclimatization, etc., etc., I would lay stress on the fact that they really were independent of foreign assistance or supplies, through their vast variety and perfection of household industries. Why should they fear any king, when each man on his farm and each woman in her home held every necessity for life—food, drink, fuel, lighting, clothing, medicine, shelter? Home-made was an adjective that might be applied to almost every article in the house. It is true that the preparation of these home-made supplies involved vast labor and skill; but in the labor all took a part, and all worked unsparingly, so much was accomplished.

The art of spinning was an honorable occupation for women as early as the ninth century, and the wool industry dates back to prehistoric man. The patience, care, and skill ever involved in its manufacture has exercised a potent influence on civilization. As early as 1643 the author of "New England's First Fruits" wrote: "They are making linens, fustians, dimities, and look immediately to woolens from their own sheep." In Virginia prizes were offered for home-raised wool, home-spun yarn, and home-woven cloth. Soon the spinning wheel was whirring in every thrifty house from New Hampshire and Kennebec to the Carolinas.

The "all-wool goods a yard wide" which we so easily purchase to-day meant to the colonial dame or daughter the work of months from the time when the freshly sheared fleeces were first given to her deft hands. The fleeces had to be opened with care, and have all pitched or tarred locks, brands, "dag-locks," and "feltings" cut out. These were spun into coarse yarn, to

be used as twine. The white locks were carefully tossed, separated, and cleaned and tied into net bags with tallies to be dyed. Another homely saying, "dyed in the wool," demanded a process of much skill. Indigo furnished the blue shades, and cochineal, madder, and logwood beautiful reds. Domestic dyes of brown and yellow, from the bark of the red oak and the hickory-nut, were universal. Copperas and sassafras also dyed yellow; the flower of the golden-rod, "set" with alum, was the foundation, combined with indigo, of a beautiful green. Pokeberry juice and violet dye from the petals of the flower-de-luce were other home-made colorings. After the wools were dyed the housewife spread them in layers, if a mixed color was desired, and carded them again and again. The wool was slightly greased with rape oil or melted "swine's grease" to be carded—a trying process. At last the wool was carded into small, light, loose rolls, about as large around as the little finger, which were to be spun into yarn.

An old author says, "The action of spinning must be learned by practice, not by relation." Sung by the ancient poets, the grace and beauty of the occupation have shared praise with its utility. The spinner stood slightly leaning forward, lightly poised on the left foot; with her left hand she picked up a long, slender roll of soft wool from the platform of the wheel, and deftly wound the end of the fibers on the point of the spindle. She then gave a gentle motion to the wheel with a wooden peg held in her right hand, and seized with the left the roll at exactly the right distance from the spindle to allow for one "drawing." Then the hum of the wheel rose to a sound like the echo of the wind; she stepped backward one, two, three steps, holding high the long yarn as it twisted and quivered. Suddenly reversing the wheel, she glided forward

with even, graceful stride and let the yarn wind on the swift spindle. Another pinch of the wool roll, a new turn of the wheel, and *da capo*.¹

An explanation of succeeding details is this: The yarn was wound as it was spun upon a broach, which was usually simply a stiff roll of paper or corn-husk. When the ball was as large as the broach would hold, the spinner placed pegs in the spokes of the spinning-wheel and tied the end of the yarn to a peg. Then she held the ball of yarn in her hand and whirled the big wheel round, winding the yarn on the pegs into hanks or clews. If the yarn was to be woven, the hank was placed on the reel or swift. A quill made from a piece of reed was then placed on the spindle, the wheel again set in motion, and the yarn wound off on the quill, cut the exact length of the loom-shuttle by which the yarn was to be woven into woolen cloth. When wound full the quill was placed in the shuttle and was then ready for the loom. The home-spun yarn was woven in hand looms into heavy cloth, which was washed, dyed, shrunken, dressed, fulled, and then clothed the household. If the yarn was to be knitted it had to be washed and cleansed.

The manufacture of flax was encouraged in all the colonies from earliest days, and it received a fresh impulse in New England through the immigration of about one hundred Irish families from Londonderry, who settled in New Hampshire on the Merrimac about 1719. They spun and wove with far more skill than prevailed among those English settlers who had already become Americans. They established a manufactory according to Irish methods, and attempts at a similar establishment were made in Boston. There was much public excitement over spinning. Women, rich as well as poor, appeared on Boston Common with their wheels, thus making spinning a popular holiday recreation. A brick building was erected as a spinning school and in 1737 a tax to support it was placed on carriages. Again from 1765 to 1770, previous to the Revolution, and in 1789, in revulsion of feeling at the extravagance of adminis-

tration after the Revolution, these "spinning bees" were held in New England towns, frequently at the house of the minister.

In Virginia the colonists found flax growing wild, but the first governors also encouraged its cultivation. In 1622 excellent flax was sent to England. Spinning schools were ordered in each county, where young children could be taught to spin and weave flax. Thomas Tusser² says in his "Book of Housewifery":

Good flax and good hemp to have of her own,
In May a good housewife will see it be sown.
And afterwards trim it to serve in a need;
The fible to spin, the card for her seed.

The culture of the flax plant was but the first of the many labors of the housewife to acquire her beloved fine linen. It was sown like grass-seed, and when four inches high was weeded by women and children, who worked without shoes in order not to injure the delicate plant, and who labored always facing the wind, that the breeze might favor any downtrodden plants and help them to rise. In July the hemp was ripe and the plants were pulled up by the roots and laid flat on the ground a day and a night. Then it was rippled with a heavy comb fastened on a plank, called a ripple comb. This process broke off the bolles, or seed-capsules—the bobs they were called. Two riplers sat at either end of the bundle of stalks and struck it alternately. Then the stalks were tied in bundles, called bates, and stacked. Soon it was watered, to rot the leaves and softer fibers. This was done preferably in running water, as the rotting flax poisoned fish. Stakes were set in the water in the form of a square and the bates of flax were piled in solidly, each alternate layer at right angles with the one beneath it. Heavy stones were piled on top. In four or five days the bates were taken up and the rotted leaves removed. A slower process was called dew-retting or rotting, whereby the flax rotted slowly while spread on the grass, after which it was thoroughly dried.

A brake of wood was then applied with violent blows to separate the woody part, or

bun, from the fibers, "to take out the hexe from the rind." This was done twice, once with an open-tooth brake, once with a close brake. Then it was swingled, or scutched, with a scutching-block and knife, to take out any small particles of bark that might adhere. All this had to be done in clear, sunny weather, when the flax was as dry as tinder. The clean fibers were next made into bundles, called strikes. The strikes were swingled again, and from the refuse, called swingle-tree hurds, coarse bagging could be spun and woven. After being thoroughly cleaned the rolls or strikes were beetled, that is, pounded in a wooden trough with a pestle-shaped beetle until soft.

Then came the hackling, or hetcheling, the fineness of the flax depending upon the number of hacklings, the fineness of the various hackles, or combs, and the dexterity of the operator. In the hands of a poor hackler the best of flax would be converted into tow. The flax was slightly wetted and drawn through the hackle-teeth, and the short fibers were pulled into one continuous thread. The threefold process had to be all done at once; the fibers had to be separated to their fine filaments, the long threads laid in untangled line, and the tow separated and removed. Often six fine heckles were used. The fibers then were sorted according to fineness, a process called spreading and drawing. So after over twenty skilful manipulations the flax was ready for the most dexterous process of all, spinning, and was wrapped round the spindle.

Seated at the small flax wheel, the spinner placed her foot on the treadle and spun the fiber into a long, even thread. Hung on the wheel was a small bone, wood, or earthenware cup filled with water, in which she moistened her fingers as she held the twisted flax. The thread was wound on bobbins; when all were filled the thread was wound off in skeins on a reel. An invention called a clock-reel counted the exact number of strands in a knot or skein and ticked when the requisite number had been wound, when the spinner would stop

and tie the skein. A quaint old ballad has the refrain:

And he kissed Mistress Polly when the clock-reel ticked.

That is, he seized the rare and propitious moments of Mistress Polly's comparative leisure to kiss her.

Usually the knots, or lays, were of eighty threads, and twenty lays made a skein, or slipping. To spin two skeins of linen thread or weave six yards of linen was a good day's work; for it a spinner was paid eight cents and her "keep."

These knots of thread were light brown in color and had to be bleached. They were laid in warm water for four days, the water being frequently changed and the knots constantly wrung out till the water came from them clear and pure. Then they were "bucked," that is, bleached with ashes and hot water, in a bucking-tub, over and over again, then laid in clear water for a week. Afterward came a grand seething, rinsing, beating, washing, drying, and winding on bobbins for the loom. Sometimes the bleaching was done with slaked lime or with buttermilk. Flax was not easily dyed. Indigo for blue and oxide of iron for yellow were the only sure dyes.

After the linen web was woven it went through at least twoscore other processes, those of bucking, passing, rinsing, drying, and bleaching on the grass; the last was called crofting in England and grassing in America. In all over forty bleaching manipulations were employed upon "light linens." Thus at least sixteen months had passed since the flaxseed had been sown, in which truly the spinster had not "eaten the bread of idleness." In the winter months the fine, white, strong linen was made into "board cloths," or table-cloths, sheets, pillow-biers, aprons, short gowns, gloves—cut from the spinner's own glove pattern—and a score of articles for household use. These were marked, and sometimes embroidered with home-dyed crewels.

In early days spinning was done on the ancient rock, or hand distaff, by which a very fine thread could be made. In 1642 a law was passed in Massachusetts that

children "set to keep cattle shall also be set to some other employment withal, such as spinning upon the rock, knitting, weaving tape, etc." I heard recently one of our historians refer in a lecture to this colonial statute, and he spoke of the children "sitting upon a rock" while knitting or spinning, etc., evidently knowing nothing of the proper signification of the word.

The first, and most natural, way of lighting the houses of the colonists was found in the fat pitch-pine, which was plentiful everywhere; but as soon as domestic animals increased candles were made, and the manufacture of the winter supply became the special autumnal duty of the thrifty housewife. Great kettles were hung over the kitchen fire and filled with hot water and melted tallow. At the cooler end of the kitchen two long poles were placed from chair-back to chair-back. Across these poles, like the rounds of a ladder, were placed shorter sticks, called candle-rods. To each candle-rod were tied about a dozen straight candle-wicks. The wicks were dipped again and again, in regular order, in the melted tallow, the succession of dipping giving each candle time to cool. Each grew slowly in size till all were finished. Deer suet was used as well as beef tallow and mutton tallow. Wax candles were made by pressing bits of half-melted wax around a wick. A natural and apparently inexhaustible source of material for the manufacture of candles was found in all the colonies, especially in the vicinity of the seashore, in the waxy berries of the bayberry bush, which still grows in large quantities on our coasts.

The most trying and burdensome domestic duty of early spring was the annual making of soft soap, which was such an important article for home use. All the refuse grease from cooking, butchering, etc., was stored through the winter, and wood ashes from the great fireplaces were also saved. The first operation was to "set the leach" for making the lye. Many families owned a strongly made leach-barrel; others made a sort of barrel from a section of the bark of the white birch. This barrel was set at

a slight angle on a circular groove in a wood or stone base. The barrel was filled with ashes, and water was poured in till the lye trickled or leached out through an outlet cut in the groove. The water and ashes were frequently replenished as they wasted and the lye accumulated in a tub or kettle. It then was boiled down and when it was strong enough to hold up an egg was ready for soap-making. The grease and this lye were then boiled together in a great pot over a fire out of doors. The soft soap made by this process seemed like a pure, clean jelly, and showed no trace of the repulsive grease that helped to form it. A hard soap also was made with the tallow of the bayberry, and was deemed especially desirable for toilet use.

It has been said that the snow-shoe and canoe as made by the Indians could never be improved. To these might be added the split birch broom, or splinter broom, also the invention of the Indians, but made in every country household in New England in colonial days. The branch of a large birch tree was cut eight feet long. An inch-wide band of the bark was left about eighteen inches from one end, and the shorter and lower end was cut in fine, pliable slivers up to the restraining bark band. A row of slivers was cut from the upper end downward, turned down over the band, and tied firmly down; then the remainder of the stick was smoothed into a handle. These brooms were pliable, cleanly, and enduring, and as broom-corn was not grown here until the latter part of the past century they were, in fact, the only brooms of those days. They were made by boys on New England farms for six cents apiece and bought by the country storekeepers in large numbers for the cities' use. Major Robert Randolph told in fashionable London circles in 1750 of walking in his boyhood in New Hampshire ten miles to Concord with a load of these brooms on his back to sell for his only spending money.

These were not the only domestic utensils that the boys whittled, for in the universal manufacture of household supplies the boys joined; and, as Daniel Webster said, the

Yankee boy's jack-knife was the direct forerunner of the cotton-gin and hundreds of other Yankee inventions. The boys from earliest days made trenchers and trays, wooden pans in which to set milk, and wooden bread troughs. They made also butter paddles of red cherry, noggins, keelers, rundlets, flails, cheese-hoops, cheese-ladders, salt-mortars, pig troughs, pokes, sled neaps, axe-helves, box traps, reels,

bobbins, handles for all implements, hay-rakes, and scores of other wooden implements. They also employed themselves in sticking wire teeth in wool-cards. The strips of pierced leather and bent teeth were supplied by the card manufacturer, and the children received a petty sum for the finished cards. In every household every spare moment was occupied in doing something which would benefit the home.

INSECT COMMUNITIES.

BY ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK, B. S.

THE workers constitute by far the greater part of the insect societies; as their name implies, they carry on the industries and business affairs of the community. In the case of ants, bees, and wasps the workers are females whose reproductive organs are undeveloped. In the termites the workers are both male and female, but with similarly rudimentary reproductive systems. Thus it seems that the bearing of young is found incompatible with business life in insect societies.

Not so, however, is the care of the young; this is always considered one of the most important of the industries of the commune. Among the bees and ants the care of the young is relegated to the younger sisters, although the elders do not scorn these duties if they find their performance necessary. However, the first work of the ant or bee just emerged from the pupa state is that of nurse, and a most tender and devoted one she is. Especially are the ant nurses solicitous about the health and comfort of their small charges. In some species the young ant grubs are assorted into sizes, those of the same age being kept in the same apartment, suggesting a graded school. When the ant babies are hungry they stretch up like young birds, and their nurses regurgitate partly digested food into the gaping, hungry mouths. The nurses keep them very clean by licking them with their long tongues, and, what is more interesting, are very careful to keep them in the

right temperature. When the sun shines hot on the nest in the morning the nurses carry their charges to the lower compartments, but toward night they carry them again to the upper nurseries. The nurses show great interest in the young when they emerge from the pupa state, helping them to straighten out their newly freed antennæ and legs, then taking a hand at their education by leading them around the city and showing them the ways of the formic world.

All the members of the insect commune are shining lights in their devotion to the young. The moment an ant nest is attacked those citizens who are not detailed to fight the intruders will snatch up the babies and flee with them to places of safety, or when hard pressed will fight to the death for their protection. This is worthy of note, since it is not the mother instinct for saving her young but is a race instinct instead. It may here be stated that the objects popularly known as ants' eggs are not the eggs, but the young grub ants; the eggs are too small to be seen well with the naked eye.

The more successful the insect colony the greater the number of young. Consider once the labor of the bee nurses, who may have, in strong colonies, 12,000 hungry babies to feed every day. The work of the young bees is truly onerous, for they not only have to be children's nurses but also have to feed the queen and drones, construct the comb, cap the larvæ cells, keep the hive clean, and keep it well ventilated

by a process of draughts set up by using their wings for fans.

To secure the food for the whole society occupies the time of the older and majority of the members of the colony. Among the bees the workers are physically modified for their labors. The hind legs are broadened and concave above so as to form baskets for the carrying of pollen. Between the segments and the lower side of the abdomen are glands for the secretion of wax. Two segments of the hind leg are formed so as to make forceps to remove the plates of wax after they are secreted.

One of the most taxing of the bee industries is the making of wax. Bees gorge themselves with honey, then hang themselves up in festoons or curtains to the hive, and remain quiescent for hours; after a time wax scales appear, forced out from the wax pockets. The bees remove these scales with their natural forceps, carry the wax to the mouth, and chew it for a time, thus changing it chemically. Thus it may be seen that wax-making is a great expense to the colony, for it costs not only the time of the workers, but it is estimated that twenty-one pounds of honey is required to make one pound of wax. As a matter of fact much of bee labor is that of the manufacturing chemist. Raw material does not suit their fastidious taste, thus all the honey, their chief food, they take from the nectaries of flowers as cane sugar, and in the honey stomach mix it with a secretion which changes it into grape sugar.

Bees are unwearying workers; they share with the workers of other insect societies an utter recklessness as to their own individual safety and preservation. When a bee goes out for honey she also collects pollen, so that she comes back heavily laden and flying low and slowly. It is no wonder that an ancient Greek writer, noting the pollen upon the legs of a laden bee, states that on Hyettus¹ the bees tie little pebbles to their legs to hold them down. The lavish wastefulness of individual life is shown by the relative longevity of bees during the working and resting season. Those individuals matured in the fall will live eight or nine

months, while in the height of the honey season a bee will wear herself out in a month.

The hours of labor among the ant workers are greater than among bees, as they have been observed working until late at night. Some of the species in hot countries wisely do their labor at night, resting in their nests during the heat of the day. There seems to be more originality and variety to the labors of the ant workers than we find among bee workers. The foragers bring back a great variety of food for the housekeepers and the young. Certain species in dry countries provision their nests for the winter. The ants perform herculean labors while excavating their tunnels as well as when carrying great burdens of food. The worker ants have a delightful habit of taking naps when they are tired. McCook describes their sleeping positions thus:

Some are squatted down on their abdomens and last two pairs of legs; some lie upon their sides; some are resting upon the hind legs, standing on tiptoe; some are crouched upon the earth with faces downward; several are piled one on top of another.

When they awaken they stretch and yawn in the most naïve and human manner. In an ants' nest one thing is most noticeable: however crowded the galleries may be, and however much the ants may be obliged to crawl over and push each other, they do it with the utmost good nature. Another noticeable thing is the free way in which the foragers feed the hungry. An individual seldom asks in vain for food. In spite of their thriftiness, the instinct of sharing is stronger than the instinct of accumulation. The generosity of these insect citizens toward each other is an ideal which still lies beyond the horizon of accomplishment in the human world.

The termite workers are of both sexes, and their industry is such that they prove a terrible plague in the tropical countries where they abound. Our native species tunnel their nests in wood, and are, in fact, very skillful engineers, for they build covered ways under which they work. A feat not only of engineering skill but skill in reason-

ing came under our eyes in our own formicary. A piece of rotten wood tunneled by termites was put on a formicary which consisted of a board surrounded by a moat filled with water. As the queens of our native termites have never been discovered, we are unable to keep these little creatures contented in artificial nests. Thus the ones under observation were always seeking avenues of escape. They tried the moat at every point. Finally they observed that one end of their nest-log projected out beyond the outer edge of the moat, although several inches above it. At once they commenced building a covered way straight down from the projecting end, thus bridging the hated ditch with great neatness and despatch.

Only among termites do we have a strictly soldier caste. These are both males and females, and are distinguished by having very large heads, armed with strong jaws. The soldiers never do any work for the colony, but hold themselves within the nest, ready to defend it in case of attack. Strike a termite nest with a stick and instantly the little workers, busy with construction, will disappear, and the soldiers will rush out pell-mell, ready to throw themselves upon the intruder. If they see no enemy they retire and their places are taken by the workers, who proceed to repair the nest with great rapidity. The soldiers have a habit of striking their great jaws against the wood of the nest, making a clicking sound; the workers respond to this signal with a hiss. Some naturalists have believed this knocking by the soldiers was an assurance that the coast was clear. Some have believed it was a command to hasten, as the workers seem to hustle about faster after hearing it. As the termites do not carry on wars, the termite soldier is a guard to the nest rather than an aggressive foe.

Among bees and ants the soldiers are workers imbued with the spirit of warriors; as they are all females they may well be called Amazons.² Here the industrial energies of the peaceful citizen are changed into a fighting spirit under provocations most human. In the history of all the

battles of earth we have no records of more reckless bravery or more undaunted facing of death than we find in the battles of bees and ants. The recklessness of the individual for its own life is shown by the fact that a bee, ant, or wasp, will attack a man or a horse single-handed, without a moment's hesitation.

Division of labor is carried to extremes among the honey ants. In this species there is a caste whose business it is to form reservoirs for the storing of food. The storage individuals receive all the honey which the workers bring in. The crop becomes much enlarged, until it distends the entire abdomen. One of these little honey vats looks like a large currant, with head, thorax, and legs attached to one side. These very accommodating citizens hang to the roofs of the galleries of the nests, and during seasons of famine give up to their hungry sisters their surplus honey.

The detailing of certain duties to certain individuals has been alluded to in the discussion of the use of young citizens as nurses. Among the leaf-cutter ants of Texas the citizens work in gangs or relays. Certain individuals climb the trees and cut off the leaves, which drop to the ground; there they are gathered up by other individuals, who carry them to the nest. Mr. McCook reports seeing three divisions thus at work in one ants' nest. He has evidence also that in some species the ants work in divisions while excavating their underground tunnels. This shows that they have a comprehension of the value of economy in labor.

The driver ants of Africa form living bridges and ladders, through individuals clinging to each other until the rope is long enough to reach the desired point. The marching hordes behind pass over these living bridges.

In the nests of bees, ants, and wasps, sentinels are stationed at the entrances, who give alarm in case of attack. In one species of ants, who make the entrances to the nests very small, the sentinels use their own heads for the gates. The advantages of this living portcullis are obvious, as no enemy could

surprise the nest without awaking the sentinel. Ants, as a general thing, are careful about closing up their doors at night.

Mr. McCook gives most interesting accounts of the duties of the gate-closers in the nests of the Occident ant. The gate-closers work both from the outside and inside, the last ones outside leaving a small opening through which they push into the nests, finishing the task from within. One of the species of slave ant defends its nest by throwing up earthworks at the gates, so as to impede the progress of the invaders.

The property of insect societies consists of their dwellings, stored food, live stock, and slaves. We are met at the outset with the question whether insects have a true sense of property. If property be defined as a legal right to the ownership, use, enjoyment, and disposal of a thing, then we have certainly much to prove. The laws of insect communes may only be known through the actions of the communists. To us it seems that their sense of property is such as characterizes primitive peoples, whose unwritten laws are defined by brute force. The haste with which the ants remove their youngsters in case of attack could scarcely be classed under the name of property rights, although in no instance does the mother of the young act as their defender. The state cares for the children, and the state defends them. However, the situation is somewhat different when it comes to the question of stored food. The bees and the agricultural ants store up food in the summer for use in the winter. Our common ants use plant lice for their milch cows, and in all of these cases the owners show by their actions a clear sense of property rights.

That bees have this sense is shown through their actions in defending their stores from other plundering swarms. Bee-robbing usually takes place when there is little nectar to be taken from flowers, and probably hunger incites to ill-gotten gain. It is interesting to note that strong colonies are seldom attacked, the weaker ones being the victims. The fury with which the owners of the honey will fight for its reten-

tion is sufficient, when once seen, to convince any doubter that bees, at least, have a sense of property. When the robbed swarm is overcome and the queen killed, the bees will desert and join the robbers, and help carry their own stores to the hive of the marauders. This shows that it is a matter of property and not individual animosity which inspires them, otherwise they would fight to the death. Bee-hunters say that when taking up a bee-tree, or a beehive for that matter, the bees will fight furiously until their comb is actually broken; then they give up, and, defeated and despairing, cluster on the broken comb, making no farther effort to save themselves. There is something touching in the story of these brave little defenders of stores and home and their utter discouragement when they see their treasure broken and ruined. "Taking up" bee-trees and bee-hives is a barbarous performance and does not redound to the honor of man; and the thought of it quite reconciles one to all of the bee-stings inflicted upon the *genus homo* since time began.

Another sign of the sense of ownership of stored provision is the care given it by the harvester ants of Texas and of India. These wise harvesters store their seeds in underground granaries for winter use. After the rains come, the grain, if let alone, would naturally germinate or become moldy. The ants comprehend this, and when good weather comes again they bring the grain up and dry it in the hot sun, and then return it to the granaries.

Of all the property belonging to ants, probably the plant lice are cared for with most forethought and intelligence. The fact that the ants used the aphids for milch cows was discovered nearly a century ago, but the special care given to their live stock has been a subject of more recent study. Almost any one may have observed ants running up and down the trunks of trees and shrubs. It is no joy of climbing nor desire for a wide outlook that leads the ants to ascend trees, but because the leaves of the trees afford pasturage for their small cattle, the aphids. These little creatures

exude voluntarily drops of a sweet liquid known as honey dew. The process of milking is this: the ant comes up to the aphid and pats it on the back with her antennæ, at which the flattered and pleased aphid gives forth the honey dew, which the ant eats with every sign of enjoyment. It might seem at first glance that the benefits of this relationship accrue only to the ants. However this is not the case. The ants are fierce defenders of their flocks and make it very uncomfortable for the many insect enemies of the aphids. Some species of ants build sheds over the aphids upon the trees, and other species remove them to the safety of their own nests; but the special claim of the ants as aphid protectors lies in the care of the aphid eggs, which are shown as much attention as their own.

This habit of ants has proven of economic

importance to our farmers of the middle West. One of the serious pests in that region is the corn-root plant louse. Professor Forbes has demonstrated that these corn-root lice are absolutely dependent on the ants which live in the earth of the corn-fields. Ants fetch the last brood of aphids in the fall into their nests, and there the oviparous generation is developed and the eggs are laid. The ants give these eggs great care, taking them into the deeper galleries during cold weather and fetching them to the surface in warm days. When the young aphids hatch, the ants take them and place them upon the corn roots, and thus gain a nucleus for their summer herds. This shows a process of reasoning on the part of the ants, since they do not feed upon corn roots themselves and yet seem to know that the aphids require this food.

GERMAN SOCIAL DEMOCRACY.

BY PROF. JOHN W. PERRIN, PH.D.

OF ALLEGHENY COLLEGE.

THE earliest socialism of the nineteenth century was the offspring of two great revolutions occurring in the eighteenth. That of Robert Owen came from the industrial revolution in England. That of St. Simon was the result of the revolution in the world of thought occurring mainly in France through the influence of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and the Encyclopedists.¹ Neither of these can be considered revolutionary in the ordinary sense; both were non-political. The aim of Owen was to complete the industrial revolution; that of St. Simon was little more than to further the work begun by the French philosophers.

This type of socialism perished in the Revolution of 1848. Since then it has been political and revolutionary. Its chief homes are no longer in England and France, but in Germany and Russia. That which has grown to greatest proportions is the German social democracy. Its creed is the legitimate offspring of the democratic communism of the young Hegelians.² It assumes

the rôle of its prototype in the first French Revolution and seeks the overthrow of all existing order that it may establish the social democratic state.

There is division among the Social Democrats on the question of the form of government to be set up in the social state. There are those who favor a strong central government. Others exclude entirely the idea of a federation from their ideal, and adhere to the doctrine of Proudhon³ that "government of man by man, in every form, is oppression." They believe that "each man should be a law to himself" and all supreme government abolished. Though there is division on the question of government, the party is one in the belief that the new social order can come only by the subversion of existing institutions. Consequently it attacks the state, derides patriotism, opposes religion, seeks the destruction of the family, and endeavors to set up communism in the whole life of the people. August Bebel,⁴ one of its representative

leaders, has said, "In politics we are republicans, in economics socialists, in religion atheists." This is the gospel of chaos, preached so successfully as to create the largest political party in the empire.

Socialism had little foothold in Germany before 1848. It was the opinion of Prof. Lorenzo von Stein, in 1842, that "Germany need not fear socialism, for, unlike France and England, she had no proletariat to speak of." But even then influences were stimulating its development. A few propagandists, among them Karl Marx, had begun to urge the need of a new social order. There was already a socialistic philosophy derived chiefly from the teachings of Hegel, but coming in part from Fichte.⁵ A reaction, too, was setting in against the old political economy that had come from the school of Adam Smith in England, in the days of Stein and Hardenberg. And when the Revolution of 1848 came, the spirit of democracy and revolution inherited from the propagandism of 1789 was revived and intensified.

Immediately after the Revolution of 1848 a number of cooperative societies were founded by Schulze-Delitzsch⁶; little else was done. But the possibility of making socialism a working revolutionary force came only with the radicalism of Ferdinand Lassalle. It was in 1862, the year following the accession of William I. of Prussia, that Lassalle began his career of propagandism. He contended that the Revolution of 1848 had freed the fourth estate⁷ as the first French Revolution had freed the third. He urged workmen to organize for industrial freedom, and insisted that their only chance to improve their position was in productive associations that would give them the entire benefit of their labor. He claimed, too, that it was "the duty of the state to furnish these associations with capital, to insure justice to all members, and to regulate the markets of the world." He defeated Schulze-Delitzsch before workmen's unions at Leipsic and Frankfort, and then organized the "Universal German Workingman's Association," destined to grow into the Social Democratic party.

Lassalle died August 31, 1864, from the effects of a wound received in a duel. Becker, his successor, was a failure, and for the next three years the "Universal Association" made very little progress. Becker was succeeded in 1867 by Jean Baptista von Schweitzer. Von Schweitzer came from an old and wealthy family of Frankfort-on-the-Main. He was a man of good administrative ability and believed fully in the doctrines of Lassalle, defending them with ability and vigor. It was his aim, as Lassalle had intended, to guide the agitation along national lines. In this endeavor he was thwarted by William Liebknecht⁸ and August Bebel. Liebknecht had professed to be a disciple of Lassalle, Bebel had accepted originally the doctrines of Schulze-Delitzsch. Both now had come under the influence of the international socialism of Karl Marx, and they used their influence to prevent the workmen's unions which had sprung up since 1860 from attaching themselves to the national socialism of Lassalle. It was not long before they had formed a party favorable to their cause. Then it was easy to make the transition from the radicalism of Lassalle to the international revolutionary socialism of Marx.

The workmen's unions had been federated in 1863. In 1868 the federation rejected the scheme of Schulze-Delitzsch as entirely inadequate, and declared for international socialism. A year earlier Liebknecht and Bebel had succeeded in persuading a large majority of the members of the Universal Association to accept the international program; and in 1869 the "internationalized" union, with the seceding members from the Universal Association, met at Eisenach⁹ and formed the "Social Democratic Workmen's Party." A little later a party organ was adopted and the work of winning converts was actively begun.

Little was done during the next two years. The Franco-Prussian War prevented the party's making any decided gains. Indeed "the wave of patriotic enthusiasm that swept over the land nearly submerged the socialistic agitation." When peace came the propagation of social democratic doc-

trines went on under most favorable circumstances. War had brought business inflation; this was increased greatly in the first years that followed by the expenditure of the enormous French indemnity, which to many seemed an inexhaustible source of wealth. There was the wildest speculation, and in the end business depression. Wages fell. Men were thrown out of employment. Then they were ready to accept any social vagary that promised them a better future.

There were other reasons, too, why the party grew rapidly between 1871 and 1878. In 1874 the peace footing of the army was fixed for seven years at 401,659 men. To support this vast armament the resources of the nation were being drained. In 1876 the imperial budget fixed the necessary expenses of the army at 252,099,350 marks; two years later this sum was exceeded by 97,797,473 marks. In 1875 Liebknecht's labors to bring the members of the Universal Association remaining true to the principles of Lassalle after 1869 into the Social Democratic camp were crowned with success. In that year at Gotha¹⁰ the German socialists were all united into one body.

The result of business depression, increased taxation to support what was probably the costliest military system the world had ever seen, and the union of the socialist forces at Gotha is best seen in the election of 1877. In 1871 the party had cast 124,655 votes and returned only two members to the Reichstag. Now they had elected twelve deputies and cast a popular vote of nearly a half-million. The condition was alarming, but repressive measures were not thought of until the logical outcome of socialism appeared in two attempts to assassinate the aged emperor in 1878. The first was by a youth named Hödel, who boasted of his socialistic opinions. The second was by Dr. Karl Nobling. Hödel inflicted no injury upon the emperor, but Nobling wounded him severely. Then the cry for repression came from all parts of the empire. A bill was introduced by the government to prohibit "the existence and formation of all organizations seeking to subvert the present state and society." The

debate that followed is of historic interest. Bismarck prepared the way for an open avowal in favor of state socialism by frankly stating his economic and social beliefs. "He stated that his hostility to social democracy had come from hearing one of its leading members in an open sitting of the Reichstag express his sympathy for the Paris Commune." Nor were the Social Democrats less frank. Bebel declared it to be the wish of his party "to abolish the present form of private property in the instruments of production and means of labor as well as in land." He twitted Bismarck for his association with socialists and especially for his friendship with Lassalle. He also mentioned Roscher, Rodbertus, Rau, Schäffle, Schmoller,¹¹ and others as political economists with socialistic leanings.

The bill became a law and a temporary success came from its rigid enforcement. At the election of 1881 the Social Democrats, while they still returned twelve deputies to the Reichstag, saw their popular vote sink to 311,961. Now their work was carried on in secret. Socialist editors took advantage of the privileged nature of parliamentary reports and published in full the speeches made by Liebknecht, Bebel, and other socialist deputies in the Reichstag. Bismarck attempted on two occasions to suppress by vote the publicity of proceedings, but each time he was defeated.

In 1879, at a secret conference held at Wahren, Most and Hasselmann urged revolution outright. Later in the year it was voted by a congress held at Wynden, in Switzerland, to reject the revolutionary schemes of the anarchist leaders and to adhere to the policy of "passive resistance" proposed by Liebknecht and Bebel. But the manifesto issued after the close of the congress contradicted this vote most flatly by declaring for the overthrow of the present "insane and criminal" state and social system. Even while the congress was voting its policy of "passive resistance," *The Social Democrat*, the official organ of the party, was proclaiming the necessity of the subversion of all existing order to attain the social democratic state.

The assassination of Alexander II. of Russia by nihilists led Bismarck, at the urgent request of the emperor, to lay before the European powers the need of united action for the suppression of the forces of anarchy and destruction. Russia was urged by Germany to take the initiative. She did so, and invited a conference of the powers at Brussels; but France conditioned her assent upon that of England. The latter declined the invitation and the conference was not held. All that came of Bismarck's efforts was the conclusion of an extradition and dynamite treaty between Russia and Germany.

About this time the Niederwald plot¹² against the royal family was discovered. The authorities were aroused to greater vigilance than ever. Numerous arrests were made, and in December, 1884, two men were executed for participation in the plot. The Anti-Socialist Law was prolonged till September, 1886, and greater police powers were given to local authorities. But these measures failed to check the growth of the Social Democratic party, which now had considerable funds for the propagation of its principles from *The Social Democrat*, whose circulation had greatly increased, though it was published out of Germany.

The result of the election of 1884 was very gratifying to the Social Democrats. They had made a vigorous campaign and demonstrated a strength that no one had suspected. Their total vote was considerably increased over that of 1881 and they had twenty-four seats in the Reichstag. The government now resolved upon a war of extermination. But notwithstanding its vigorous efforts for suppression, the Social Democratic vote rose in 1887 to 763,000. Now for a time the situation was unchanged. This was due to the death of the old emperor and the uncertainty as to the policy of his successors. In the next year occurred the largest strike ever known in Germany. This was in the coal-mines of Westphalia and the Rhenish provinces. It threatened for a time to extend throughout the empire, but after a few weeks it came to an end in a victory for the most part to the

miners. The influence of this strike, the almost constant socialist trials, and the agitation over the question of renewing the Anti-Socialist Law added to the ranks of the Social Democrats. Bismarck's insistence that the law be prolonged led to differences between him and the young emperor that resulted in his resignation as chancellor in 1890. The law was not renewed and the exiled socialists swarmed back to Germany. Liebknecht became editor of the *Volksblatt* and the propagandists of the party were more active than ever. In October of this year a congress was held at Halle.¹³ Here was reached the logical conclusion of the socialism enunciated at Eisenach when the party was formed. At Eisenach it was the democratic state that was favored. The democratic state was still to the front when the union of socialist forces occurred at Gotha. But at Halle the state had become a reactionary institution which it was right to destroy.

The election of 1890 proved the party to be the largest in the empire. Its popular vote was nearly a million and a half and its representation in the Reichstag had risen to thirty-five. Till now the party's vote had come from the cities and towns. This election gave evidence that considerable advance was being made in the country districts. Since 1890 the party has seen its most rapid growth. The all-absorbing political question during the first half of the year 1893 was the parliamentary struggle over the Army Bill. The government introduced a bill to increase the peace footing of the army nearly 100,000 men. The increased expense was estimated at 69,000,000 marks. The government gave as its reason for the bill the necessity of making the army equal to that of France. The Social Democratic, National-Liberal, and Radical parties united in opposing it on the ground that present taxes were already unbearable and that the people were not able to stand any increase. The government was defeated and the Reichstag immediately dissolved. The new elections were set for June 15. The Social Democrats put all their energy into the campaign.

They worked harder than any of the other parties and made greater gains in the popular vote. They succeeded in electing forty-four deputies, eight more than they had before the dissolution of the Reichstag.

In 1894 Prince Hohenlohe introduced an anti-revolutionary bill which was rejected by the Reichstag. Since then the government has been compelled to employ rigorously any provisions in existing laws calculated to hamper the socialists. But this policy seems to be creating more alarm in the Liberal party than in that which it was intended to repress. The election of 1896 gave the Social Democrats forty-seven deputies and a popular vote of 2,250,000.

The fact that the party's representation in the Reichstag does not correspond proportionately with its popular vote prevents its being a very important factor in the enactment of legislation, except as it may by

combination with other parties block proceedings. Even though it is unable to put its pernicious program into the laws of the land, it must be regarded as a constant danger to social order. While its two leaders, Liebknecht and Bebel, are of lower intellectual rank than Lassalle and Marx, they are both able. Both are skilled in debate and the art of party management. The party is without doubt not only the largest but the most thoroughly organized and efficiently led revolutionary body the world has ever seen. It is a constant menace, not only to Germany but to the entire world. Its program of democratic communism and the radical utterances of its leaders give ample justification to the remark of the second chancellor of the empire that "it is the greatest danger which threatens the close of the nineteenth century and the opening of the twentieth."

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE RIGHT RELATION OF EMOTION AND REASON IN RELIGION.

[February 6.]

IF we should search through Christian history for a good instance of intellectualism and emotionalism personified and set over against each other in hostile attitude, perhaps no better could be found than that of Abelard and St. Bernard at the Council of Sens, in France. Abelard had been accused of teaching some of the rationalism that was spreading over Europe as a result of the first crusade. The accuser was St. Bernard, renowned from his youth for having seen heavenly visions, and for having once brought himself through penance and fastings to the point of death, a monk at whose preaching listening monarchs wept and prostrated themselves at his feet. The accused had been a professor of philosophy at Paris, with hearers by thousands, he being counted the brightest light of his time in all Europe; but he was already under one heavy cloud from that wretched

affair of his private life which makes him look to us very much like a man without a heart. He was condemned for heresy and appealed to Rome, but he died before his case was settled.

Abelard stood for the intellectual and St. Bernard for the emotional in religion. The difference here was mainly a matter of temperament, no doubt, as is the case with the same types that are met with again and again in every religious community. Yet there are other causes, such as climate, sex, or the nature of the prevailing religion. We know that the men who live nearest the sun have the warmest hearts, that women show more feeling than men the world over, and that believers in Jesus are more emotional than the followers of Confucius. Indeed we might make a classification of the great religions of the world on this principle, placing on one side the few, such as Brahmanism with its metaphysical pantheism and Confucianism with its cold philosophy, and on the other side the many, such

as Buddhism with its mysticism, Mohammedanism with its fiery zeal, Judaism with its personal Jehovah, and Christianity with its salvation by faith.

But such a classification would not be scientific. Though the subject of comparative religion has at present hardly reached the dignity of a science, yet certain general traits of all religions are pretty well ascertained. Among these are the tendency to infinite ramification and the vigorous growth of new grafts on the old trunk. Moreover every trunk, new or old, soon puts forth the two branches, rationalism and mysticism, which continue to grow side by side. So Mohammedanism has both its orthodoxy and its mystical sufism,¹ founded by a woman. So Judaism had its Sadducees, who said there was "no resurrection, neither angel nor spirit," and its Essenes, who were mystics. So Christianity has had on one side Gnosticism, Sabellius, Socinus,² "the vindicator of the human reason against the supernatural," Theodore Parker, and the advanced Unitarians, who make religion an affair of ethics and metaphysics. All these were rationalists.

On the other side Christianity has had Plotinus, with his doctrine of approaching God through ecstasy until the soul is "swallowed up in divinity, bathed in the light of eternity"; Tauler, the German mystic who influenced Luther; Jacob Boehme,³ the shoemaker-preacher and father of modern mysticism; St. Francis of Assisi,⁴ who so literally followed the command "Let this mind be in you which was in Christ" that his body also finally showed the red scars of the crucifixion; George Fox and the Quakers, with their doctrine of "inner light"; Schleiermacher,⁵ talking much of "the great world of religion that opened only at the touch of the magic wand of feeling," and of "the consciousness of the noiseless vanishing of our whole being into the immeasurable"; and finally the Moravians and their spiritual grandchildren the early Methodists, who almost made religion a feeling about a feeling. All these were more or less mystics. These two main branches still grow side by side from the

same trunk, and although now one and now the other may outstrip its neighbor, they will no doubt both continue to grow till the end of time. If all the virtues lie midway between two extremes, then that religion is best which holds its way along on the safe path, equidistant between the marshy valleys of emotion on one side and the frosty peaks of reason on the other. But this path is hard to follow. Only the few masterly ones can keep it very long. The practical question is, therefore, on which side is it safer for the average man to venture? Our answer will depend on what we take religion to be.

[February 13.]

MATERIALS for a definition may be gathered here and there from the fields of psychology, comparative religion, philosophy, and divine revelation. Here an objector may at once demand, "Can there be any exact psychology of religion?" and, "Are beliefs then only psychological growths, comparable to the flora and fauna of continents or oceans?" The answer of course in both cases must be No. Yet a careful search in anthropology, in philosophy, and in comparative theology for what impartial scholars have written about the subject would certainly aid us in making a definition.

What does psychology say, then, about the origin of religion? The replies differ among themselves. According to Epicurus, Lucretius, Hume, Strauss, and others, religion begins in fear—

fear

That makes a fetish and misnames it God.

Immanuel Kant, however, based it on the omnipotence of the moral law, and Matthew Arnold, following him, said, "Religion is morality touched with emotion." Again Schleiermacher derived it from the human feeling of dependence and weakness. Then Max Müller and others claim for man a special religious faculty—"a subjective faculty for the apprehension of the Infinite." Still others deny any separate religious faculty, insisting that the old classification of the powers of the soul, as knowing, feeling, and willing, is correct and final. And these

philosophers teach that religion is not mere knowing, as rationalism holds, nor mere willing, as the moralist believes, nor yet mere feeling, as the mystic imagines, but rather a complex phenomenon in which knowing, feeling, and willing are all involved. But they admit that if religion is like the rest of the phenomena of our spiritual life, then feeling came first. Observe now that each of the theories just mentioned makes religion begin in some sort of feeling: a feeling of fear, of moral duty, or of human dependence. This is the dictum of psychology.

Something further may be gathered from the new field of comparative religion. To get at the nature of religion, it is wise to ask what is common to all religions. In brief, then, the points in common are these: definite ideas of God and his relation to the world; definite prescriptions for the behavior of man toward his God; definite advantages which man hopes to obtain from his God; and finally, as a result of all these things, definite moods which rule men, such as fear, reverence, humility, remorse, trust, gratitude, and love. Under the light of this new study, then, religion, in its results at least, appears to be mainly feeling.

Many of the older lights of poetry and philosophy also clearly bring out this element as the essential part of Christianity. And men who have thought and felt so deeply on the matter as to become world-wide authorities thereon are witnesses whose expert testimony may not be omitted from the case. We can admit only a few. A religious philosopher who had no superiors in his own age and few superiors in any age was Anselm of Canterbury. His intellect was acute and inquiring, yet his favorite maxims were, "He who does not believe will not experience and he who has not experienced will not understand," and, "A Christian must arrive at understanding through faith, not at faith through understanding." But he gave reason also its place, requiring that after the faith is held fast the attempt must be made to demonstrate by reason the truth of what we believe. And St. Bernard, the mighty preacher of the D—Feb.

second crusade, already cited as an example of emotionalism, was also celebrated, strange to say, as a fair scholar and accurate thinker. Hear his conception of religion:

As air filled with sunshine is transformed into the same brightness, so that it does not so much appear to be illuminated as to be itself light, so must all human feeling toward the Holy One be self-dissolved and wholly transfused into the will of God. For how shall God be all in all if anything of man remains in man?

Francis Bacon, the father of modern philosophy, granted that there is one realm in which logic is not safe. He says:

The heathens likewise conclude in that divine fable of the golden chain that judgment is not safe in religion, that men and gods were not able to draw Jupiter down to the earth, but contrariwise, Jupiter was able to draw them up to heaven.

Leibnitz, too, the founder of German philosophy, strongly condemned all attempts to render the mysteries of religion comprehensible by demonstration. Pascal, the mathematician, declared:

Nothing is so conformable to reason as the disavowal of reason in the things that belong to faith. Hegel, "the philosopher of the Restoration," believed that

In religion the Absolute exists as the poetry and music of the heart in the inwardness of feeling.

Hermann Lotze, by far the most important among the more recent German philosophers, when he came to speak of religion, sincerely admitted that

What is best and fairest and most fruitful in our experience will always be realized in us only in the shape of those living emotions which are superior to the forms of knowledge.

And, finally, Mr. Balfour, in his recent book on the "Foundations of Belief," sums up a part of his testimony in these words:

The fact is obvious, but not sufficiently considered, that so far as empirical science can tell us anything about the matter most of the proximate causes of belief, and all the ultimate causes, are non-rational in their character.

[February 20.]

THE deepest thoughts and feelings of an age or race often find more genuine expression in its poetry than anywhere else. So

it may be fitting here to cite from two poets, one of whom well represented practical England, the other the Middle Ages. Dryden, certainly not a mystic in any sense, in his poem on a Layman's Religion exclaims :

Dim as the borrowed beams of moon and stars,
To lonely, weary, wandering travelers,
Is reason to the soul.

And Dante, crystallizing in his "Divine Comedy" all the Christian theology of the Middle Ages, makes Virgil a type of reason and Beatrice a symbol of faith. Virgil leads Dante with slow steps down circle after circle of Hell, and up the Mountain of Purgation stair by stair; it is the tardy process of the understanding on the pathway of experience. Beatrice does but shine upon him with her radiance, and he rises instantly to the very throne and the beatific vision.

But our highest authority must be revelation. For at least three of the great religions had personal founders. Their origin was therefore subjective, or by inspiration. Now whatever theory we may hold about inspiration, and whether or not we would deny it entirely to the non-Christian faiths, cannot affect the supremacy of any alleged revelation as an authority in everything that concerns its own religion. To know Mohammedanism, we must go to the Koran; to know Judaism, we must go to the Pentateuch; to know Christianity, we must consult the New Testament. And as it is subjective Christianity and that alone which concerns us now, we must listen to the words of St. Paul, St. John, and Jesus. They all make the evidence of inner consciousness greater than that of external testimony. "The natural man," wrote St. Paul, "receiveth not the things of the spirit of God: for they are foolishness unto him: neither can he know them, because they are spiritually discerned." "He that believeth hath the witness in himself," wrote St. John. "Verily I say unto you," said Jesus, "who-soever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein."

But St. Paul also said, "Prove all things; hold fast to that which is good." And just this is the function of reason. It is profit-

able for correction, for instruction, and for doctrine. Reason may judge revelation. Suppose yourself living in Jerusalem, and never having become a devotee of any religion. A Mohammedan, a Buddhist, and a Roman Catholic come to you and each says, "You must accept my creed." How are you to determine which to follow? By reason alone.

Reason is profitable for instruction also in furnishing added proofs to confirm revelation; such, for example, as the four or five proofs for the existence of God. It has discovered, namely, that with all men there is found an idea of God. Therefore there must be a God. It has discovered also that every finite thing has the cause of its being and activity outside of itself. It therefore concludes that the totality of finite things must have the cause of their being and working outside of themselves, that is, in God. It has further discovered that in this world a purpose prevails. This was not set up by things themselves for themselves. Therefore it was set up by a being outside of themselves or by God, an intelligent, purposeful being. Again reason sees that there is a moral law, simply obligatory. The will of man did not make it, but knows itself subject to it. This must have been founded by an absolute law-giver, that is, by God. These proofs, the historical, the cosmological, the teleological, and the moral, as they are called, greatly help to verify revelation.

[February 27.]

BUT the intellectual in religion is profitable above all for doctrine. Religion exists of course in the condition of emotion, of sentiment, of vital instinct, before translating itself into rites or intellectual notions. Dogmas are only the language of religion. But language is an organism. It grows and evolves. So does dogma. The variable element in dogma is the intellectual element. And Professor Sabatier, of France, has pointed out that the phenomena of growth of a language and of a dogma are the same. Language, he says, is modified in three ways: first, by disuse; second, by

introsusception, or the acquiring of new meanings; and third, by the renewal of old words or the creation of new ones. Dogmas, he says, have the same history. First, some die, as that of demoniacal possession so prevalent in the first few centuries of Christianity; second, there come new interpretations, a putting of new wine into old bottles, as the restating of the doctrine of inspiration; and third, the putting of new wine into new bottles, as the doctrine of justification by faith in the sixteenth century, which was either a new belief or a revival of a very old one. Reason, then, is profitable for correction, for instruction, and for doctrine. Here the domain of intellectualism ends.

Intellectualism: let us understand ourselves on this matter. It has a pleasing sound, and we moderns are so dazzled by its achievements in the material world that we want to en throne it in the spiritual world. It is sublime in its place, but let us beware of its encroaching where it does not belong. In the presence of eternity it is helpless. Reason told Plato in Athens that the soul is immortal, but it taught the French philosophers in Paris that death is an eternal sleep. By reason the followers of Aristotle held that the world is eternal; but the followers of Democritus were persuaded that everything sprang from a chance concurrence of atoms. By reason Hume declared there is no solid argument for the existence of God; and Shaftesbury said, "The man who denies the existence of God errs against the well-being of society." Reason has made religion for too many of us a barren desert. It has drawn our beliefs not from the depths of the soul, but from the shallows of philosophy. It has kept God as far removed as possible from our hearts.

Permit me now to use an illustration from D'Aubigné, the learned author of the "History of the Reformation." After he had begun to preach with fulness of faith he was so assailed in going into Germany by the sophisms of rationalism that he was plunged into unutterable distress. He passed whole nights without sleeping, endeavoring by arguments and syllogisms without end to re-

pel the attacks of the adversary. In his perplexity he visited a venerable divine who for forty years had been defending Christianity against the attacks of philosophers. Before him D'Aubigné laid his difficulties for solution. The worthy preacher replied:

Were I to succeed in ridding you of these, others would soon rise up. There is a shorter and completer way to annihilate them. Let Christ be really to you the son of God—the Savior. If this is settled, the details will not be difficult.

Then they prayed together.

When I arose from my knees in that room [says this illustrious man] I felt as if my wings were renewed as the wings of eagles. From this time forward I comprehended that my own syllogisms and arguments were of no avail. The habitual attitude of my soul was to be at the foot of the cross, crying, "Do all thyself. I know that Thou wilt do it; Thou wilt do exceeding abundantly above all that I ask." I was not disappointed. All my doubts were soon dispelled, and the Lord extended unto me peace like a river. If I relate these things, it is not as my own history alone, but that of many sincere young men, who, in Germany and elsewhere, have been assailed by the raging waves of rationalism.

This experience of so learned a man is especially helpful to us in modern times, for it is to be feared there are among us too many of the type of Abelard and too few of the type of St. Bernard. It is to be feared that the terms "experimental religion" and "the witness of the Spirit," which were almost the watchwords of our fathers, are not heard so often as they once were. Yet they certainly express what is best in every Christian church. The witness of the Spirit is the most effective answer to the positivism and agnosticism that keep stealing into our minds out of the periodicals and books that we read. For we do read in the daily press the flippant remarks about higher criticism or heresy trials or the world's congress of religions, or we ponder the subtle insinuations against Christianity found in the magazines and reviews, and many of us, more of us in fact than like to confess it, secretly say to ourselves, "Where is this going to end?" At such times the sure antidote is the one D'Aubigné found good.—*Prof. J. W. Thomas, Ph.D., of Allegheny College.*

THE FINANCIAL MARKETS OF GERMANY.

BY RAPHAEL-GEORGES LÉVY.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

THE Germany of to-day no longer resembles that of former times.

Having been for a long time in the wake of other countries, she is striving to-day to take the lead in the commercial and industrial movements of the world. Westminster Hall in London is echoing with the complaints of certain English members of Parliament about German competition. It is certain that not only the foreign commerce of Germany is moving with giant strides, but German houses are taking the places of English houses in many countries of Asia and America; for example, in China and India, which have been the natural domain of England.

Since the money market in the organization of modern nations is the measure of their general prosperity, let us look at that of Germany. We must remark first of all that public finances in Germany, while attaining a satisfactory level, do not give rise to such important transactions as do the consols of Great Britain or the government bonds of France. This comes from several causes, of which the most fortunate for the country is the relatively low figure of its public debt. The interest-bearing debt of the German Empire hardly exceeds five hundred million dollars. The debt of Prussia is higher but it is almost entirely represented by the thirteen thousand miles of government railroad whose profits serve to pay the interest on the debt.

The quotations of the money market of Berlin show a very respectable development. Thirteen hundred different concerns are represented in them, which are half as many as are quoted in London and one and a half times as many as are quoted in Paris. The principal divisions are these: first the course of exchange on Holland, Belgium, Scandinavia, the United States of America, France, etc.; then the government loans,

comprising those of Germany and the confederate states, and the loans of cities. Another class is composed of the obligations of colonization companies, of which only one up till now, the German Society of Eastern Africa, has issued stock.

German railroad stock has lost much of its interest and importance since a series of purchases has placed the principal lines in the hands of Prussia and of the other confederate states. Out of twenty-seven thousand miles of line managed in 1896, nine tenths belong to the state.

The stock exchange which comes immediately after Berlin in importance is that of Frankfort. This ancient free city was formerly the most important financial market of Germany. Old banking houses with a world-wide reputation were established here. Some of these still exist but are not distinguished by the same activity as formerly. The swift development of the capital of the empire has had its inevitable effect; the centralization of great business affairs in Berlin has followed the centralization of the government in that city. At the same time the great stock companies have more and more taken the places of the individual bankers who half a century ago had a sort of monopoly in the negotiation of state loans and other financial transactions. The boards of management of the trust companies are drawing to themselves more and more the active power of the banking world. These trust companies, at once vast and delicate, bend themselves to the details of their small patrons and at the same time are ready to sign contracts with governments for loans amounting to hundreds of millions.

Frankfort, though fallen from its former prominence, still remains a great market. It is a place of exchange no less for investments than for speculation. This is shown

at first glance by an examination of its quotations, which are distinguished by the length of the lists; that of foreign railroads, of which the United States of America alone furnish one half, is more developed than at Berlin and proves at once the anxiety of Frankfort people to invest their savings and the large amount of capital so invested.

The stock exchange at Hamburg, as we might expect of a seaport engaged in commerce with all the world, is above all a place of money-changers. It has to furnish to its merchants the drafts they need on other places and be ready at the same time to cash the bills of credit of foreign countries.

The legislation which governs German financial markets is of two different kinds. One kind concerns the stamps which are to be attached to commercial paper. The law of 1885 prescribed a special imperial stamp for which the charges are as follows: government bonds are exempt; German stocks pay one per cent and foreign stocks one and a half per cent of the capital. But these taxes were far from appearing sufficient to a numerous faction of Parliament who did not cease to claim measures of restriction and control against the stock exchange in order, according to their brutal expression, to "bleed it more vigorously." These re-priminations go back to 1873, the period of the celebrated crash which upset Vienna and Berlin. The collapse of certain Berlin banking houses revived this hostile feeling and provoked the demand for special legislation. A commission of twenty-eight members, among whom was Mr. Koch, president of the Bank of the Empire, was in session from 1892 to '93 and formulated a plan for a law.

This law was promulgated in June, 1896. According to it a stock exchange may not be opened without the authority of the government. Commissioners of the state are appointed for each exchange as well as a commission of thirty experts named by the Federal Council. The part of the law about dealing in futures is the most important. It gives power to the Federal

Council to forbid these bargains in certain commodities or values. It forbids them for gold, for mining stock, and for manufactures, and only authorizes them for other industrial stock when the capital of the company is at least five million dollars. It forbids this kind of bargains in cereals and the products of the mills. A stock market register was instituted to be kept by authorities competent to receive the commercial records. Upon this register are to be inscribed the individuals and the companies who wish to operate in futures. The authority of these records consists in the fact that any business agreement involving a fictitious delivery of the commodity, when concluded between parties not registered, in case of dispute, cannot be carried into court.

The spirit of this legislation is easy to discern. Its purpose is to put all stock exchanges under the direct watch and control of the government. It suppresses dealing in futures in a large number of cases, and where it is tolerated the validity of it is only recognized between persons who have had themselves registered. It decrees Draconian penalties against offenses that are often hard to characterize.

As this law has been enforced only a few months, it is impossible to judge all its consequences. These will be felt little by little, but there is already a general complaint. The effect of the interference of the state is to provoke slanderous accusations, which are brought every day to the commissioners. The red tape necessary for admission into the list of quotations is excessive. The prohibition of bargains in futures has led to the organization of operations in actual delivery, even outside of the regular affairs of exchange, so that the aim of the law appears to have failed entirely in this regard. As to the registry, this too is practically a failure. Only fifty persons in Berlin and nine in Frankfort had registered at the end of six months. The bargains continue to be carried on with nothing but the good faith of the contracting parties to depend upon. This proves in passing that mutual confidence is the

basis of most of the transactions of the stock exchange.

In regard to the prohibition of bargains in futures with cereals, it has had the effect of lowering prices in Berlin since the beginning of the year at the same time that they were rising in Paris. This is the result obtained by the agrarians, who kept repeating without end that dealing in futures had no other effect than to depress natural prices, and that the doing away with it would be the signal for an immediate and permanent rise. It is in vain for them now to struggle and try to prove that commerce is the enemy of agriculture. The natural play of demand and supply and freedom in business are more necessary to the producers of grain than they are to any manufacturer. The police closed last June in Berlin a meeting of a certain number of merchants who had tried to combine for the purpose of exchanging cereals. It will not be long before the countrymen themselves will ask for new legislation which will again open the markets that were so imprudently closed.

It is interesting to trace the history of a German bank. We have chosen a particular stock company that bears the name "Deutsche Bank," because its founding goes back to 1870, a few months before the Franco-German War, and because the different stages of its development mark the financial progress of the country since that period. Founded with a capital of three and three quarter million dollars, it was destined in the minds of its founders to occupy also the countries beyond the seas. In 1881 two successive increases had carried its capital up to fifteen millions of dollars. In spite of the crisis of 1882, which was particularly severe in Paris, and in spite of the bad condition of affairs in America, the year was not a bad one for the bank, thanks to the regular increase of the patronage of the establishment. In 1886 the directors of the bank established a branch house in Frankfort and another with a capital of two and a half million dollars in Buenos Ayres. In 1888 it had a capital of eighteen and three quarter millions of dollars. The year 1893 was marked by the

failure of the Australian banks, by the American panic, and by the partial suspension of payments in certain European states. The total effect of these events impoverished the German merchants and diminished the consuming power of the nation. The economic struggle between Germany and Russia was at its height, and at the same time the bourse was menaced by the new legislative schemes aimed at it. The Deutsche Bank limited itself to opening a branch house in Munich. The effect of the failure of the Northern Pacific Railroad in the United States, in which it had important interests, was compensated by the abundance of capital on the market and by the income due to a good harvest. So a dividend of ten per cent could be declared in spite of all the adverse circumstances.

In 1895 this bank saw the volume of its debtor accounts increase notably and the figure of its commission increase in proportion. In fact the operations in margins being forbidden, not only in cereals, but in a large number of industrial stocks, a patron who desires to operate in these things applies to his bank, which buys them for him for cash, advancing at the same time something on their value until the day when they are again turned into money, or the purchaser pays for them himself. This is an indirect method of reestablishing for the client the dealing in futures forbidden under simple form. In view of the important capital that this new employment absorbs, the bank in 1895 raised its capital to twenty-five million dollars by issuing five million dollars of new stock that sold at one hundred and fifty. The same year the bank realized great profits in South America and took part in important mining enterprises in South Africa.

The number of employees of the bank is thirteen hundred and forty. The deposits in 1896 reached twenty-three millions of dollars. In 1897 it absorbed two more provincial banks, increased its capital, and strengthened its reserve. Its stock is quoted at the double of par. Its capital is now thirty-seven and a half million dollars. It has a network of branch houses reaching

all over the country, without counting the establishments abroad.

If this bank has been at the head of the financial movement it has been followed by many others. In less than twelve months, in 1895, the bank of Dresden increased its capital by three and three quarter millions. At the end of the year the six great banks of Germany had increased their capital by an average of more than twenty per cent for the year.

The companies dealing in mortgages on real estate have made similar progress. One mortgage company, that of the Rhine, already twenty years old, has made loans of over sixty millions of dollars. Only two ninths of its obligations now pay four per cent, the rest being reduced to three and a half. Similar progress has been made by many other mortgage companies. The total capital lent by these companies exceeds one and one fifth billion dollars.

The six greatest banks of Germany do not limit themselves to discounting and loaning. Their deposits, properly speaking, amount to only sixty million dollars, or half of the capital stock. Five large English banks similar to these in importance have, on the contrary, with a paid-up capital of about fifty million dollars, deposits amounting to three billions, or twelve times the amount of capital. An annual difference of one per cent between the interest made good to the depositors and the interest collected by the English bankers amounts to six million dollars, or twelve per cent on a capital of fifty millions. The bankers at London are therefore much better paid, while at Berlin the establishments combine the business of a bank and that of a financial association. This double aim compels them to have much greater capital, which they need to make the loans or to subscribe to stock, while in England the capital is hardly anything more than a guaranty.

There is hardly a day when we do not read on the fourth page of our journals the prospectuses of new enterprises. Almost all these are issues of stock by industrial companies and the public buys the stock of the bankers. The stock of the

coke ovens of upper Silesia, issued last May at one hundred and sixty-two, immediately rose to one hundred and seventy-five. The stock of the Germania Brewery is quoted at one hundred and thirty-three, with a dividend of seven per cent. We might continue for several pages this enumeration of prospectuses, at the bottom of which are found again and again the signatures of many of the banks and bankers of Germany.

We are far from saying that everything in this violent movement is praiseworthy. Cool observers begin to think that the public is warming up beyond what is reasonable, and point out that more than once an excessive rise in industrial values has been followed by violent reaction. Enthusiasts reply that the profits realized justify the prices. However it may be, admitting that the stock exchange has committed, and is still apt to commit, excesses, it is undeniable that the industrial expansion of Germany does not stop. A simple fact of statistics places in strong light that evolution which has changed an agricultural country into an industrial nation. Until 1875 Germany exported agricultural products. To-day she imports not only grain, but meat, bacon, eggs, and other objects of nutrition, to the amount of five hundred millions of dollars more than she exports. Manufactures, which employ twenty and one fourth million souls, and commerce, which employs six million, occupy more than one half of the nation. The increase in births has partly brought about this transformation. In exploiting the riches of the soil, especially iron and coal, the workmen furnish the wherewithal to pay for the food substances which it is necessary to-day to bring from abroad. Germany is not yet at the same point as England, which imports two thirds of the grain that she consumes, but she is no less accomplishing an evolution in this direction which shall be more and more rapid as the rate of her population shall increase. It is necessary to bear this fact in mind to understand the present financial movement of Germany. It is only a result of its industrial activity.

With its population, which in twenty-five

years has increased by one fourth, with its marine, which is building the largest ocean steamers known, with its harbors, whose activity has increased tenfold, with its commerce, which swarms all over the world, with its manufactures, which are increasing every day, Germany has many elements of financial strength. The rapid progress of life insurance, which in Germany now amounts to a capital of about one billion and a half dollars, is one proof out of a thousand.

Germany ought to serve us as a lesson. We are not among those who are cast down and discouraged by the success of others. A country, as well as an individual, must look closely at those who succeed and ask itself why they succeed. It is just as dangerous to admire everything that others have as it is to want to know nothing of what is going on outside of ourselves. We must strive to fathom the real causes of admitted triumphs. This being done, a second thing remains which is no less difficult or delicate. That is, to study the differences of character, of temperament, of social conditions, which cause a given method that is excellent on

one side of the Rhine to be worthless on the other side.

But one evident truth independent of all particular circumstances is that energy and initiative are qualities equally useful to individuals and to the nations of which they form a part; that this energy and this initiative are more necessary to-day in financial, commercial, and industrial affairs; that upon this soil, as upon others, those who do not advance recede; that we are surrounded by an England which is overflowing the world, which is striving every day to draw more closely the bonds of a federation, uniting the metropolis to its colonies; by a Germany which is moving with giant strides; by an Italy which is less ruined perhaps than we imagined. We must face, therefore, in all its greatness the economic task imposed upon us. We excel in a certain number of domains; even here let us not go to sleep, confiding in a superiority which might be conquered at more than one point. Let us strive to imitate our rivals, taking inspiration from their zeal, from their perseverance, and even from their audacity.

THE INFLUENCE OF ROMAN LAW ON ENGLISH LAW.

BY PRES. HENRY WADE ROGERS, LL. D.

OF NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY.

NO one knows better than the student of jurisprudence how true it is that the roots of the present lie deep in the past. The law of our American states has as its basis the common law of England which our forefathers brought with them from the mother country when they landed at Jamestown and Plymouth Rock. This English common law, as Lord Bacon said, was as mixed as our language. Fortescue¹ traced its beginnings in the customs of the primitive Britons, and Selden saw in it customs engrafted thereon by the Romans, the Picts, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans. The roots of our law lie so deep in the past that Lord Hale's remark is unquestionably true, that "the original of

the common law is as undiscoverable as the head of the Nile." And just as it is impossible to discover the original of the common law it is almost equally impossible to determine with any degree of satisfaction the extent to which the law of England has been influenced by the laws and customs of other nations.

The question of the historical relation of the Roman law to the law of England is one which has been frequently propounded and ably discussed by very learned men, who have spent much time in investigation and carried on profound research, the result being a decided conflict of opinion and the division of scholars into two classes. We are told on the one hand that Roman law

has exerted but very little influence on the law of England, and on the other we are informed that its influence was really very potent. In the midst of all the doubt and uncertainty in which this subject is enveloped one fact stands forth very clearly revealed, and that is that Roman law had very much less influence in shaping English law than it had in determining the law of France, Spain, Germany, Holland, and Scotland.

Rome's contribution to the civilization of the world was its system of jurisprudence. The Greeks gave art, philosophy, and poetry to men, while the Romans gave them a body of wise and equitable laws. This body of law, reduced to the form of a system in the "*Corpus Juris Civilis*" by Justinian near the middle of the sixth century, has been ever since admired by those who have been familiar with its merits, and those who have studied it have found therein proofs of the highest culture and refinement. Browning, in "*The Ring and the Book*," says:

Justinian's Pandects only make precise
What simply sparkled in men's eyes before,
Twitched in their brow, or quivered on their lip,
Waited the speech they called but would not come.

This body of law furnishes the basis upon which rests to-day the jurisprudence of continental Europe, and makes true the words of D'Aqueseau³ that "the grand destinies of Rome are not yet accomplished; she reigns throughout the world by her reason, after having ceased to reign by her authority."

This system of law never became the basis of English jurisprudence, although the ablest English and American lawyers have always been ready to bear testimony to its worth. Lord Hale, who "set himself much to the study of the Roman law," went so far as to say that "the true grounds and reasons of the law were so well delivered in the Digests that a man could never understand law as a science so well as by seeking it there."

In any consideration of the influence of Roman law on the law of England mention has to be made of the fact that the early

English kings had a long and bitter struggle with the pope to maintain their own independence and that of the Anglican Church. The result was that there grew up a sentiment of opposition to the Church of Rome and to everything connected with it. Roman law came to be regarded as identified with the Church of Rome and as one of its instruments, and as such it was subject to the common aversion. Moreover its doctrines were favorable to absolutism, and a people naturally inclined to freedom were not disposed to look with any great favor upon a system the tendency of which was in the direction of despotism. Accordingly in 1236, at the Parliament of Merton, the barons formally proclaimed that they would not suffer the kingdom to be governed by the Roman law. The judges in the common law courts also took their stand against it and prohibited its citation in their tribunals.

The important doctrine of *habeas corpus* is said not to have been of British or Teutonic origin but to have probably come from the Roman law. The Habeas Corpus Act, 31 Car. II. c. 2.⁴ is regarded by Englishmen as the second Magna Charta,⁵ and is mentioned by Blackstone as "the stable bulwark of our liberties." This is the great writ by which a person unjustly imprisoned may cause himself to be brought before the proper judicial tribunal for the purpose of having the nature, cause, and legality of that imprisonment inquired into. This is one of the most important rights of the citizen, and is secured to him in this country by a provision in the Constitution of the United States declaring that "the privilege of a writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it." Similar provisions have likewise been incorporated in the organic law of the several states. The writers on the Roman law point out that every important doctrine of *habeas corpus* is to be found in the Pandects in the forty-third book. The writ was called "the interdict." The celebrated Roman jurist Ulpian⁶ in his commentary upon it says:

This writ is devised for the preservation of liberty to the end that no one shall detain a free person.

And he adds :

The word freeman includes every freeman, infant or adult, male or female, one or many, whether *sui juris*¹ or under the power of another. For we only consider this : Is the person free ?

One of the institutions upon which Englishmen most pride themselves is that of trial by jury. This right of trial by jury as it existed at common law has been secured to the people of this country by appropriate constitutional provisions. The distinctive characteristic of the system is that the jury is composed of twelve men taken from the vicinage, whose duty it is to inquire into the truth of disputed facts. While the judge determines the questions of law which arise at the trial, the jury determine from the evidence laid before them the questions of fact.

Very much has been written concerning the origin of the jury system. Some writers have given it a Teutonic origin, others a Danish, others have ascribed it to the Anglo-Saxons, and others to the Normans. The truth of the matter is that the common law system of jury trial was a very gradual evolution, and that it has existed in the form in which we have it to-day only from about the reign of Edward III. In the earlier time the jury was composed of persons who had personal knowledge respecting the matter in dispute, and they rendered their verdict on their individual knowledge and without hearing witnesses. Now they do not have personal knowledge of the controversy and their verdict must be rendered solely on the evidence laid before them. It was for a long time the custom in civil actions, a custom practiced even in Elizabeth's time, for the successful litigant to give the jury a dinner after they rendered their verdict.

The party with whom they have given their sentence giveth the enquest their dinner that day most commonly, and this is all they have for their labour, notwithstanding that they come, some twenty, some thirty, or forty miles or more, to the place where they give their verdict; all the rest is of their own chuze.

There are some writers who are disposed

to claim, not this custom of treating the jury, but the jury itself as having at least a relationship with Roman law, and Mr. Finlason goes so far as distinctly to claim the trial by jury as of Roman origin. It has been pointed out that that which comes nearest in time and character to trial by jury in the earlier days is what was known as the system of recognition by sworn inquest, introduced into England by the Normans, and concerning which Dr. Stubbs says :

That inquest is directly derived from the Frank Capitularies, into which it may have been adopted from the fiscal regulations of the Theodosian Code,² and thus own some distant relationship with the Roman jurisprudence.

In attending to this subject William Wirt Howe, formerly a justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana, and at present the president of the American Bar Association, says in his "Studies in the Civil Law" :

The relationship may have been distant, but it seems to be real. The conception of a judge to pass on questions of law, and a jury to pass on questions of fact, was well known in the Roman Republic at least from the days of Sulla and his reforms in criminal procedure. Every case submitted to the *questiones perpetua*³ was tried by a judge and a jury. "It was the duty of the judge to preside and regulate the proceedings according to law. It was the duty of the jury, after hearing the pleadings and the evidence, to decide upon the guilt or innocence of the accused. The number of the jurors varied according to the provisions of the law under which the trial took place, but was always considerable, and we find examples of thirty-two, fifty, seventy, seventy-five, and other numbers. The presiding judge drew the names of the jurors from the urn; each party had a right to challenge a certain number, and the verdict was returned by a majority of votes." It seems highly probable that when the recognition by inquest, as introduced by the Normans, began to assume the form of what we know as a jury, the judges might have been instructed and influenced by Roman experience in giving final shape to the system.

In England, and in the United States as well, there exists a system of admiralty law. The ordinary common law courts had no jurisdiction over maritime causes, but these causes were heard in the courts of admiralty which exercised jurisdiction over crimes and torts committed on the sea or on waters where the tide ebbcd and flowed, and over

contracts of marine insurance, affreightment, charter-parties, bottomry bonds, seamen's wages, salvage, supply of materials to ships, prizes, and like matter. In the United States the admiralty jurisdiction extends not only to the sea but to the Great Lakes and to all navigable waters, without reference to the ebb and flow of the tide. It is well understood that the principal rules of admiralty have been derived from the Roman law. The forms and terms of the admiralty are derived wholly from that law, and, as Walker has said, "the experience of twenty centuries has not succeeded in devising any essential improvements." The Supreme Court of the United States has several times said that the admiralty lien is derived from the privileged hypothecation of the Roman law. The procedure of the admiralty courts is quite unlike that of the courts of law or equity, especially as respects suits brought directly against the vessel itself, instead of against its owners.

It is also true that the English and American system of probate law has largely derived its rules from the law of Rome. In England the ecclesiastical courts acquired jurisdiction over marriage and the disposition of the estates of deceased persons on the theory that these subjects were so sacred and spiritual in their nature that the investigation of questions connected therewith ought to pertain to the church. These courts therefore early acquired the right to determine matters relating to the validity of marriage, the granting of divorces, the legitimacy of children, the probate of wills, the appointment of administrators, and the distribution of the estate of deceased persons. In exercising this jurisdiction the ecclesiastical courts regulated their procedure according to the practice of the civil and canon laws.

Hale says, in speaking of the matter, "Where the canon law is silent the civil law is taken in as a director." Mr. Scruton tells us that wills were probably introduced into England by the clergy from Roman sources, and Mr. Coote attributes clerical control over wills to the study of the civil law by the clergy after the teaching

of Vacarius.¹⁰ It is certainly very clear that the directions of the civil law have been adopted in cases involving the construction of documents and wills. In the United States we have had no system of ecclesiastical courts in the sense in which these courts existed in England, but the principles of law which those courts established respecting the subjects above referred to have been very largely adhered to by the courts of this country in their adjudication of similar questions.

It seems to be conceded that the early common law relating to corporations was largely derived from the Roman law. Blackstone after ascribing to the Romans the honor of originating corporations remarks, "But our laws have considerably refined and improved upon the invention, according to the usual genius of the English nation." The truth is that the powers and incapacities of corporations under the common law are very much like those under the civil law.

The law of partnership is also largely derived from Roman sources. Mr. Justice Story in his "Law of Partnership" has pointed out in detail the great similarity existing between the two systems in so far as partnership is concerned, and in the main the underlying principles are the same in both.

The commercial law of England was largely shaped by Lord Chief Justice Mansfield, who is regarded as the father of modern mercantile law. Lord Mansfield established this law on principles which he so frequently derived from the Roman law that Junius made it the occasion of a severe complaint against him, alleging that "In contempt or ignorance of the common law of England, you have made it your study to introduce into the court where you preside maxims of jurisprudence unknown to Englishmen. The Roman code, the law of nations, and the opinions of civilians, are your perpetual theme."

Legal scholars are not agreed as to the origin of the law of bailments. An English, Teutonic, and Roman origin has been claimed for it. The common law classifica-

tion of bailments was certainly adopted from the Roman law. Judge Holmes gives the law of bailments a Teutonic origin, and in this he is in part sustained by Mr. Scruton. Space will not permit an examination into the merits of the controversy.

The writers, like Mr. Finlason, who have been most disposed to magnify the influence of Roman on English law have not ventured to claim that the criminal law of England was much affected by it. They have been willing to concede that English criminal procedure was Teutonic and not Roman in its sources. So far as the substantive criminal law is concerned it must be conceded, however, that there are points of resemblance between the statements of that law as laid down in Bracton¹¹ and the Roman law as contained in the forty-seventh and forty-eighth books of the Digest. The historian of English criminal law, Mr. Justice Stephen, has asserted that the influence of the Roman law is clearly traceable in all Bracton's definitions of the several crimes to which he refers, though it was in all cases adopted with modifications peculiar to England. But his statement is altogether too broad. Mr. Scruton's opinion is the more correct. He says:

Roman law is only clearly visible in Bracton's account of theft and *injuria*¹²; there are very slight traces of it in homicide, *lesa majestas*, *crimen falsi*, and *occultatio thesauri*¹³; but in wounding, maim, false imprisonment, robbery, arson, and rape, there is, I think, nothing to show any use of the Roman law.

In the opinion of Justice Stephen, while the Roman law of crimes exercised greater or less influence on the corresponding part of the law of every nation in Europe, yet it was in all far more deeply and widely modified by legislation than any other part of Roman jurisprudence. Judging it from what appears in the Digest, the Roman law of crimes was not peculiarly complete or scientific.

The influence of Roman law is particularly marked in respect to equity jurisprudence. It is well understood that courts of equity grew up in England alongside of the common law courts, and that these equity courts had their origin in the fact that the common law courts administering the law by means of juries and according to certain fixed forms and established rules were not able in all cases to afford the relief which justice required. The cases in which the common law courts were powerless to do justice were taken to the king, who was regarded as the fountain of justice, and he administered relief through the chancellor, who was the keeper of his conscience. In this way the chancellor began to exercise judicial functions, and there grew up a chancery court administering justice according to equitable principles. The chancellors until 1530 were, almost without exception, ecclesiastics, and the training of these men had been in the Roman, or civil, law. It was only natural therefore that they should be greatly influenced in their conception of equity by that entertained by the Roman jurists, "understood and interpreted, however, according to their own theory of morality as a divine law." There resulted a system of equity of which it has been said that it was "Roman to the backbone." The jurisdiction of the English chancellor has been compared with that of the Roman prætor. In speaking of the last-named functionary Mr. Pomeroy has been led to say:

Indeed, his life is prolonged to our own times. The Roman empire has crumbled, the forum is deserted, but the Roman prætor has ascended the judicial tribunals of all modern nations. He sits by the side of the English chancellor; his spirit animates the decisions of British and American judges; he speaks with Holt, and Mansfield, and Stowell, with Kent and Story. His influence will never cease while nations are impelled by sentiments of justice and equity, and their laws are formed upon a basis of practical morality.

(End of Required Reading for February.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE HORRORS OF WAR.

THE lilacs of '62 had blossomed and faded. The roses had cast their petals. The gallant Johnston had fallen at Shiloh. The Mississippi had been opened to Vicksburg. Jackson and the Shenandoah had been immortalized. The "Yankee cheese-box" had saved the Union fleet. Grant the conqueror had begun the series of exploits which ended only with Appomattox Court House. The great and good Lee had proved himself a world-general, as wise as brilliant, as gifted as Christian. All these events of success or disaster were occurring, yet Captain Silas Wire, heedless alike of defeat or victory, was steadily pursuing the object of his ambition, the command of the post which was established at Jefferson in the fall of this momentous year. As a mere captain of militia he found himself too circumscribed for his far-reaching projects. He might insult and outrage southern sympathizers and even inflict the extreme penalty on Confederate soldiers taken unawares, but his power, nevertheless, was within bounds. He dared not display his venom too freely; opportunities for lining his pockets with gold had not equaled his expectations.

Moreover the taste of power he was enjoying made him all the greedier for more—whetted his already voracious appetite till it became ravening. And just ahead, if he became commandant, he saw everything within his grasp. With the war at full sweep, and likely to continue several years, countless occasions would be afforded of gratifying any passion, whether of avarice or revenge. What cared he which side won in the struggle, if only the struggle lasted long enough for him to humble his enemies?—whose humiliation consisted not only in biting the dust at his feet, but in being spoiled of houses and lands as well. Many

a man incomparably less vindictive and desirous of rule would have left no stone unturned to reach the dizzy heights of the coveted office. Nor did he.

Richard Allyn, therefore, was reckoning without his host if he thought he could prevent the appointment by ordinary efforts, or even extraordinary. Indeed there was nothing tangible to be urged against the man, and the very arguments he did offer could be turned by Wire to his own account. His low standing? The government was looking for patriots, not noble birth. His severe discipline? What better recommendation could an officer have? His excessive zeal? In such an hour the loyal must not be too discriminating. A belief that he would use his position for his own interest? Time would test the truth of this. And yet Allyn, devoted to the Union as any crusader to the Holy City, and as watchful of its interests in his narrow sphere as though he were its father, received the news of Wire's appointment with genuine chagrin. For the vigilant captain, contrary to the other's hopes and exertions, was the successful candidate after all.

About this time a measure was shaping which seemed designed to meet his peculiar end. It was the "bone tax." This, it must be explained, was a sum, varied in some degree to suit the purse of him who was to pay it, assessed against southern sympathizers or soldier's families whenever a dead body in Federal uniform or the corpse of a friend to the Union was discovered. The tax was sanctioned but not ordered by the Federal authorities of the state. It can be easily imagined that a bare permission was all the new commandant needed, and that he signalized almost the beginning of his administration with the imposition. It was the rarest good fortune that had ever befallen him—an opportunity surpassing his wildest dreams.

He could now, under pretense of righteous indignation, demand whatever sum he chose and enforce his demand with the aid of troops. Of course the money so collected was property of the government and was expected to be turned over at once; but provision of that kind was a minor consideration. The commandant would collect it, and then—every one knows possession is nine points of the law. His brain became a very caldron of intrigue, hatching schemes whereby he might extort lucre from the luckless friend of the South. He might have said, in the language of Jeroboam, that his little finger was thicker than others' loins; where others laded with a heavy yoke he added to it; instead of whips he used scorpions.

But the gods gave him still longer tether. Shortly after he began to exact the tax a recruiting company was despatched from state Federal headquarters to muster soldiers for the regular service and convoy them to the metropolis. "When the officers were sent out there seemed hardly a Confederate force in the state, so thoroughly had it been stripped for the conflict in the South, and little interference was anticipated. But in the vicinity of Jefferson a band of bushwhackers lay in ambush for the raw, undisciplined, almost unarmed recruits, and slaughtered them mercilessly. A little stream near by the battle-field ran blood, and half a hundred poor fellows had lost their lives before their military career was begun.

The commandant could easily have sallied forth from his stronghold to settle the account in a manner becoming valor, but it was far safer and more remunerative to demand an exorbitant bone tax. Accordingly he appraised each victim of that murderous attack—it mattered not to him on this occasion whether the dead man wore blue or gray; he counted all as his meat—at a sum worthy of a king's ransom—and proceeded to collect it. If the unfortunate assessed proved refractory or even hesitated, his tobacco crop or well-filled granary was confiscated; or, if he lived in town and had no resources of the field to fall back upon, the

roof over his head was sold, unless he raised the amount against a certain day.

All through the winter of '62 and '63 Captain Wire's office was more like a counting-room than that of a military officer. Hardly a boat passed down the river that was not laden with his merchandise, and the payment was always returned to him in legal tender. Not a dollar did he permit to be expended in supplies for the post. Thus at a time when any money except Confederate currency was almost impossible to obtain he was rolling in wealth. On the most commanding site in Jefferson he erected a pretentious dwelling, showy and out of taste, as delights the newly rich. In this mansion he installed his wife, bedecked with finery she did not know how to wear with ease and waited upon by servants she could not control. She was wretchedly happy, even though she had leisure and audience for her never-ending encomiums upon her child, her husband, and her native state. More than once she begged her husband to let her return to the old drudgery, for which she had spasms of homesickness, only to receive a curse because she would not be a fine lady when she could. Little Sile's playmates, too, though they satisfied him in number and quality, did not meet his father's aspirations. But a panacea for all grievances, domestic, political, military, was at hand. A little tightening of the screws, a somewhat heavier mulct than he had intended, brought again to his face the sardonic grin which sometimes now displaced the habitual moroseness.

It goes without saying that Heart's Delight was assessed its full share of the bone tax, and thereby another perplexity added to the too full list of griefs and responsibilities fallen upon the young mistress. Sometimes she felt that she must break away from it all, and, taking Nell, join her mother and Adolphus, as they wrote urging and even commanding her to do. But the peril of the journey and the probable impossibility of making it at all, together with the weightier consideration of the trust imposed upon her by Captain Seddon, had kept her at her post. Besides, she felt a sacred obligation

to have his hearthstone in readiness for his coming in case he should, by good fortune or ill, secure a brief absence from the army. At best it was but a wreck of a home to return to.

Only twice since that agonizing time when she had heard the militia gallop away in his pursuit had she heard from him. For a week she was racked with suspense. She shuddered at a sound and half swooned at the approach of any outsider, friend or stranger. But her anxiety was relieved by a letter telling how he had eluded his pursuers and was safe again in the heart of Dixie, confirming his confidence in her, and closing with a sentence of indescribable pathos that haunted her for weeks like a frightful dream. But every experience of her life was so hideous now that an additional pang made little difference. Woe succeeded woe as the days the days.

Yet through it all such courageous loyalty to duty upheld her that she discussed the management of the farm with interest and judgment sufficient to extort from Job, unused to seeing women meddle with business, profoundest homage. However, capable as she showed herself in the department for which her countrywomen were considered without genius, it engaged a small part of her attention. Contrasting her own care-free childhood with little Nell's forlornness made her yearn over the child with a more than motherly tenderness. Every day they had lessons in books and music, then a stroll through the pastures or a ride round the fields or any possible diversion that could bring back the twinkle to the bonny black eyes. This companionship, which was the child's salvation, reacted almost as beneficially on Edith herself. The salutary discipline of unselfishness never fails of its reward.

Moreover one is glad to know that in the midst of her angelic thought for others she was human enough to neglect neither her own person nor accomplishments. She dressed her hair as carefully, was as fastidious concerning the niceties of her toilet, and practiced her tones and semitones, her runs and trills and quavers as sedulously as

in the old days. Why did she? Does a girl make herself beautiful and attractive for the eyes of children and slaves when her heart is bleeding and her brain often frantic with care? She did. Then why? Ah, dear reader, have you forgotten Pandora's box and the one gift left therein?

On the night of her twentieth birthday, with Nell sunk in the pillows of the great feather bed in moist and rosy slumber and the house wrapped in silence, she placed a light close to the mirror on her dressing-table and seated herself before it. The act may have looked like vanity, yet it was not. But the eyes looking into hers, the coloring, symmetry of feature, the waving hair, and the white, white forehead—in short, the beauty, and the thought that it was her own face that sparkled with charms, must have gladdened her soul. Two years ago Max had written her a birthday letter from Texas and called her a star-eyed goddess—words that sounded strangely extravagant from him and pleased her mightily. She recalled them now as she sat here before her mirror, and wondered what he would say to-night. Had the dark scenes she had passed through seamed her face? Was she less fair now than she had been then? She looked into the glass. No!—a thousand times no!—it told her. The Edith Chester of that day was to this as the calyx-covered bud to the prodigal splendor of the half-blown rose. A flush of joy colored her cheek, to be followed a moment later by a deep blush of shame. Why should she care what he would think of her now? He was dead to her and she to him. They would remain so forever. She rose hurriedly, blew out the light, and fell upon her knees beside the bed. Her prayer was longer than usual. It was a cry for strength to tear out of her heart any memory that conflicted with honor. But next morning the care of her appearance and the practicing went on as before.

She had, at least, ample leisure for all requirements made upon her. Except to Mr. Dupey's and an occasional day at Jefferson, she and Nell went out little. There were no amusements of any kind, and even

religious service was denied. The pastor was a chaplain of the Confederate army, the membership torn with dissension, so finally the church was locked and the key hung out of sight. Yet, burdened with the oversight of servants, mentor to a score of improvident creatures, at once mother, teacher, and playmate to Nell, director-general of the estate, and attentive to her personal claims, as we have seen, she was never idle nor *ennuyé*, although her world comprised less than a thousand acres. Great trials need little company. She hardly missed now the associations which had been almost her life in other days. Her heartaches and vigils and cares and responsibilities were making character and chastening her high spirit into something little short of divine.

But the enormous assessment served by a squad of Wire's men was the calamity which overflowed her cup. Job, with terror-struck eyes, came running in to announce:

"Miss Edie! Miss Edie! 'fo' Gord, heah's ernuhr batch o' soljirs — mehlis. Oh, Lahd! oh, Lahd! whut does dey wan' dis time?"

What indeed could they want? Edith echoed. She had been feeding a small troop of bushwhackers encamped on the creek—was retribution to be demanded? Had Captain Seddon attempted to get home and fallen into their hands?

In the interval between the announcement and her summons to the door to meet the spokesman—he alone dismounted—a dozen ideas, each more chimerical than the last, suggested themselves. She even recalled the commandant's old animosity toward Job, and wondered if it were possible he was going to wreak his vengeance since it was now in his power. He should never, never do it, she vowed to herself. She would defend Job's life and liberty with her own.

With a face white as death, outwardly calm, inwardly a tempest, she politely greeted the soldier:

"Good morning, sir."

"Good mornin'. Air you the mistress?" was the response.

"Yes."

"Is they any men folks to home?"

What could the man mean by that? She paused to think.

"The master is the only gentleman who lives here and he is away, but there are faithful servants in plenty."

"Oh, you needn't be skeered. I ain't goin' to hurt a pretty girl like you. I just wanted to know if you wus the person in charge to deliver this paper to."

With that he handed her the tax bill. At first she was too dazed with fright to comprehend the contents. When she did master her feelings and the paper her first sensation was of relief; the next, consternation.

"A thousand dollars! Why, I don't know where on earth I'm going to raise that much money. You did not expect me to pay this to-day, did you?"

"Well, no, not to-day, but cap'n ain't the patientest man in the world by a long jump, an' he says the gover'ment is needin' the money bad. I guess you'd better make 'rangements to pay it soon as possible."

"Couldn't you possibly wait till I write to Captain Seddon and find out what he wishes me to do?"

"Where is he?"

"In Mississippi, I think."

"Great Lord! the war might be over an' the rebs whipped by that time. No, miss, cap'n's orders wus emphatic, in a week."

"Well, I don't know what Captain Seddon will think of me when he comes home. Oh, mercy! mercy!"

"That's fur you to settle, miss. He'd have to pay it if he wus here. If you ain't willin' to I guess there's a corn crop here—anyway there's plenty of stock. An' cap'n ain't partic'lar, just so's he gets what'll bring the money."

"I shall decide to-day. I must ask advice."

Mr. Dupey, to whom she referred the matter, expressed himself strongly:

"Pay it by all means at once. I will help you dispose of the corn, and if that is not sufficient I can raise the rest on your hemp. John has several notes, I know, but

I don't think you could collect a dollar on those. It will be much better for you to sell the corn and pay the tax than to let Wire seize it. You need not hesitate about taking that liberty with John's property—he left it in your hands. Besides, as the man said, he would have to pay it if he were here. I paid an assessment of eight hundred dollars last week. It is outrageous, scandalous, of course, but Wire has the whip and we've got to haw and gee. Don't worry over money matters, my dear. We are fortunate to keep our lives."

"It isn't the money. If Adolphus were here and I could get money of my own I should not hesitate a moment. I do wish so much to be a faithful steward for Cousin John."

"And so you are—a capital manager—a capital manager. Ask wife if I don't tell her often how you astonish me. You've a long head for young shoulders. It is a shame, though, for a pretty girl to be bothering about business. Girls are made to laugh and sing and break hearts, and after a while marry a handsome young fellow and make his home a paradise. Isn't that so, wife?" He looked fondly at the face beside him and patted her hand tenderly.

Edith could not fail to be strengthened and encouraged by the compliments and advice. The old man's fatherly gallantry touched her and won her to his opinion even before his reasoning convinced her of her duty. She had never liked him half so well before. His age was softening the asperities of his younger days, she thought. Maybe he had never been so cruel as she had supposed. How could such gentlemanly bearing be prompted by other than a kind heart? But when she was about to leave and one of the servants had brought her horse around to the front gate she noticed that the negro's eyes were nearly closed and an ugly gash reached across his cheek.

"Why, Lige!" she cried, with that ready sympathy which made her the idol of her own darkies, "what has happened to your face?"

He looked embarrassed and did not reply.

E—Feb.

"Answer Miss Edith, you brute!" thundered Mr. Dupey.

"I wur mean an' mahsteh hed t' beat me," was the shamefaced explanation.

Lige mean! He was the wonder of all the masters round. There was not a more faithful servant in Dixie. Edith shivered and rode away in silence. What a tangled skein it all was! How dearly the descendants were paying for the sin of their forefathers in introducing slavery! To abolish it now seemed destruction; to retain it a crime. But if the North conquered the question would be settled without the masters' intervention. There was a certain relief in the thought.

She paid the tax and a week later her disquiet was driven from her mind by a tragedy so appalling that the minor consideration of dollars was paltry in comparison.

The narration of the event must be prefaced with a line concerning Captain Wire's rage over the escape of the master. As his men had predicted, it was without bounds. He raved and swore till the earth trembled. His punishment of the six unfortunates who had gone to make the arrest stopped little short of death. And when the riot of his frenzy subsided it was into a sullen ire that was biding its time. The position he then held did not permit him to seek the recompense his disappointment demanded, so he waited. But no sooner had he secured the practically unlimited authority of commander of the post, and had gotten his assessments well started and all the affairs of his office into proper shape, than he cast about for some victim in Captain Seddon's stead. Max, Ned, Adolphus, were all out of his reach; likewise the Dupeys, all of whom were fighting for the Confederacy. If only they were at home! Their hauteur toward him made him hate them only second to the Seddons. If George Dupey should get a furlough home!

But—why had he never thought of it before? the old man, their father, was right at hand. "Aha! Aha!" he laughed in his exultation, and the fiends in hell quaked with dread. Yes, yes, this old man Dupey,

with his grand seignior air and his arrogant heart, had lived too long already. His locks should not whiten another month. Let him die and pay the penalty for being—what?—hated by Silas Wire.

The more the captain dwelt upon this death the more it pleased him. For one thing, Mr. Dupey's outspoken animosity to the Union and the disfavor he stood in because of his cruelty to his slaves would temper the criticisms evoked by his removal. For, though Wire told himself he was indifferent to popular opinion, he thought it would be well to keep within the bounds of discretion.

Therefore at the moment Mr. Dupey paid his bone tax the commandant mentally named the hour for his murder. He chuckled over his shrewdness in getting the money first. He would go in person this time rigorously to enforce his orders. There would be no slipping out at the rear and away.

It happened that Lige had been sent to town on an errand, and was standing on the street when the posse, headed by the chief, rode through on their devilish purpose. By some chance also the rumor of what that purpose was spread like wildfire. A group of men near Lige were discussing it and he caught a suggestion from their talk.

"Whutcher say, mahsteh? Whutcher say?" he interrupted eagerly.

"We have heard that Wire has gone out to murder old Mr. Dupey—poor old man!"

"Mahs Dupey! Does yo' mean meh mahsteh?"

"Your master? Are you a servant of George Dupey's father?"

"Yas, sah, I'm Lige. Oh, mahsteh, please don' let 'em! Won' all you gem-muns come ho'pe me sabe meh mahsteh? We's got two shot-guns hid erway an' I kin git 'em. Please, fuh Gord's sake, come! Meh po' mahsteh! Meh po' mistis!"

"We would help you if we could," the same gentleman responded, "but we could do no good. We would only be preparing ruin for ourselves."

Lige waited to hear no more. If there

were no help in that quarter he need waste no more words. Forgotten was his errand, forgotten the unmerited kicks and blows, forgotten all the ill treatment of his servitude. Violent hands would be laid on his master. His master! that person regarded with sacred awe from his cradle! Flying across fields, tumbling over ditches, up hill and down he ran with all the speed anxiety could put into his legs. He had no plan in his mind. His only impulse was to get home before the ruffians reached there and give warning.

"Ef Mahs Gawg wus heah dey wouldn't dah do it," he groaned as he ran. "'Ca'se mahsteh's ole dey ain' feahed er 'im, but Mahs Gawg c'u'd whoop 'em an' dey knows it."

The militia were galloping along at a speed that left Lige far behind, notwithstanding his short cuts. They dashed up to the yard, jumped their horses over the fence, and surrounded the house in a trice. One could not possibly have escaped from it. A dozen woolly heads were thrust out of windows and as hastily withdrawn when one of them, who knew the captain, uttered his name. It was to darkies acquainted with his record as overseer a name to conjure the Evil One with.

After arranging guards satisfactorily, with two aids accompanying him, Wire tried the front door, but finding it locked rapped with force to break it in. Mr. Dupey, who was sitting quietly in conversation with his wife and had just perceived the soldiers, answered the knock. The sight of armed men was too common to cause alarm. He felt none at all, even when the captain's diabolic visage met him. More bone tax, he feared, but his apprehension went no deeper.

"Good evening, gentlemen. Walk in," said he with his Chesterfieldian dignity.

The three stepped inside the hall.

"I guess 'tain't no use for us to go no further," said Wire, leering maliciously at his comrades. "We can settle our business here."

"Very well, sir. I am at your service."

"I kinder guess you are."

At a look his men cocked their rifles and stood ready to fire.

At that juncture Mrs. Dupey entered the hall. She stood like a statue, transfixed with horror.

"You'd better go back, old lady," enjoined Wire brutally. "You might see somethin' would sp'il your supper."

"May I ask," said Mr. Dupey, "the meaning of this? Why am I, living quietly at my home, rendering to the Union whatever is demanded, set upon in this manner?"

"Vermin like you can't live forever. If you want any better reason maybe you'll get it where you are goin' in about five minutes."

Wire thought this a tremendous joke and again leered at his companions.

"You've got just that time to say your prayers in," he continued.

Mrs. Dupey fell upon her knees and stretched out her hands imploringly.

"In God's name, spare his life! Take everything we have—our servants, our house—everything is yours! Let me die in his stead, but do not insult his gray hair! For the love of Christ put up your guns! Oh, be —"

Before she finished her husband turned to her, saying,

"Dear wife, go away, do go! I shall try —"

What we shall never know. Perhaps he would have made some plea for mercy, or maybe a brave resistance. Just then the signal was given and he fell dead at the feet of his murderers.

When Lige arrived the soldiers were riding away. The servants, wild-eyed and terror-stricken, stood peering round the corners of the house—all except one group huddled in the farthest corner of the hall, gazing in mute, paralyzed awe upon the result of that bloody deed. The master lay bathed in blood, and above him his wife, her own face and clothing bedabbled with gore, had fallen prostrate in a swoon.

Edith came at the first call and remained till all was over. Then she bore Mrs. Dupey back with her to Heart's Delight. Just as she had acted the mother to little

Nell, so now she was daughter to this broken life, far from her sons and bereft of her husband. It is strange but true—and perhaps not strange after all—that the manner of one's dying, like the mantle of charity, covers many an imperfection in one's living. Let a coward die as a hero and a hero he remains. All his life a man's unloveliness may repel us, but if his death excite our pity or invite our admiration we forget his unworthy traits and remember only the good. The human heart is wonderfully kind. In its natural state the Bible portrays it as lamentably vicious; but leavened with divinity—when is it not?—it bears fragrant blossoms of mercy and gentleness and hero-worship. So Edith, indignant and furious over his foul murder, forgot all her old neighbor's shortcomings, and was perfectly sincere in the grief she shared with his desolate, weeping wife.

It was she who wrote to George Dupey, apprising him in the tenderest way of his father's death. The letter was forwarded with unusual expedition by the secret mail service, and in consequence one bitter cold night of that winter she was startled by a gentle tapping on her window-pane and a low call. Thinking it must be Captain Seddon, she joyfully raised the sash—to behold George. At first she did not recognize his haggard face, made more haggard still by the chill moonlight, and gave a little gasp of alarm.

"It is I, Edith—George," he said, hastening to reassure her. "I ought not to have frightened you, but I went home and Lige told me mother is still here. I wished so much to see her—and you."

"Of course you should have come. Go to the side door and I will let you in."

He had not been able to stay away, he said, after he received the dread word. He left camp as soon as permission was given him. With what purpose he had come home he hardly knew, for his stay was limited. He thought his mother would need him and he wished to see her. But Edith was included in the glance. He had made a phenomenally quick trip and now that it was over was amazed that it was

accomplished with safety. By all the eternal powers he swore to kill Silas Wire—if not now, whenever the day of reckoning was possible. He kept his mother and Edith up nearly all night, storming, raging, crying, walking the floor, and anathematizing every man who ever wore the blue. Against all soldiers of the United States service, militia or regulars, individually and collectively, he took a solemn vow of revenge.

His mother was apprehensive for his own safety, but he scorned her fear. His blood was too hot to care. Besides he had been cautious. He had avoided roads, only Lige had seen him at home, and of Lige's fidelity there was no doubt. If his presence were known all his purpose of vengeance would be defeated—that explained his prudence. Then he raved again. And Edith, pitying him with all her heart, did not wonder at his violence, but almost sympathized with it. His provocation was beyond mortal endurance.

The very next day, as ill luck would have it, a band of Federal infantry marched through the country. They passed within half a mile of Heart's Delight, neither seeing nor being seen. But late in the afternoon one solitary soldier who had been separated from his company at Jefferson and was hurrying on to rejoin it called at the house to beg a knapsack of food. He was a mere boy, not more than twenty, sick and weary to death. Something in his face appealed to Edith; she hardly knew why until she discovered that his curling yellow hair and blue eyes resembled Ned's. She had not thought of refusing what he asked. Refuse a hungry man food? The inhumanity of it would have reproached her ever after. But when she discovered the resemblance, any trace of enmity disappeared and she heaped favors upon him. She filled his knapsack with dainties, had Julie prepare him a cup of steaming coffee, and even pressed upon him a small package of the berries, already growing scarce as nuggets of gold. She asked him where he was from, and if he had a mother. Yes. He wished he could break away from war's

frightful scenes and be with her once more. His eyes were wet, and so were the girl's. Ah, a woman's heart is beyond reckoning! Combinations are forever taking place that set at naught all preconceived analyses.

"You are kind; I thank you," he said simply as he turned to go.

She was standing at the window, gazing after him through a blur of tears, when she heard a step beside her and George Dupey was looking out of the window also. Her veins throbbed with quick pulsations. If he recognized the blue uniform what might not result? Forgotten was her sympathy for his revengeful grief; she attempted to divert his attention from the bare landscape and that one lone figure stalking across the fields.

But his keen eye had taken in the whole at a glance.

"Who is that?" he cried savagely, as though the ferocity of the dogs of war were concentrated in himself.

She could not conceal the truth. "It is a boy who has been separated from his command and is hastening to join it. It seemed to me that he looked like our dead boy." She waved her hand toward the graveyard and the tears again overflowed her eyes.

George did not reply, but his features worked convulsively and he strode toward the door. Edith intercepted him by a swift movement and stood facing him, her hand upon the knob.

"Where are you going? What would you do?" she asked.

"To begin my work. I have scoffed at providence; now I believe in it. It threw this man in my path."

"You shall not harm him! He has done you no wrong. He—"

"Every one of that accursed set has done me wrong. Was not my own father shot down like a dog? Edith, let me pass!"

"Never! Go fight this boy in open warfare. Murder him you shall not."

"Edith"—his voice was tense—"you may hold the door, but there is the window. It may be murder—I care not. I will kill him unless he is the better man."

"In God's name do not! I—"

She could not proceed, but caught his hands in hers and gazed into his eyes in mute entreaty.

His hate was stilled by the only passion stronger. With a touch of his father's exquisite gallantry he raised her hand to his lips and kissed it. Then before she could anticipate his action he drew her to him and placed her head on his shoulder.

"My darling," he whispered in love's tenderest accents, "if you were always at my side I should be a different man. I love you a thousand times better than ever I did in my life. Give me the answer you refused before and I will not leave you for anything else."

His words had a smack of honey to her ears. For close upon two years all her concern had been for others. Her life knew but one controlling motive: duty—sacrifice. She had strengthened all who needed her support without wearying. She was always the oak, never the vine. All leaned on her—she must trust herself. And in all those months, though attended with the truest love, it was the love of gratitude, of obligation. The condition presented to her by her lover's entreaty reversed everything. He would not only share her perplexities, but shoulder them. He loved her not for what she had done, but for what she was—because she was herself. Of a sudden she realized her burden's weight and would fain lay it down, like a tired child. Is it any wonder that her head rested where he placed it?

Her love for him did not enter her thought. He was brave, he was gallant, he was strong, he would be good, he worshiped her—that was all. She needed a refuge—here was one. And the boy trudging away with the tears falling down his cheeks would be safe. Is it any wonder that her head rested where he placed it?

All this ran through her mind in a twinkling. It would be sweet to yield. She had almost said yes.

He thought he had won. "Oh, my precious love!" he cried. "It seems too good to be true. Now I know what I came home for—to see you more than my mother.

Look up, Edith, my love, my wife!" He bent and kissed her rapturously.

With a cry she broke from his arms. Her revulsion of feeling was indescribable. His wife! Never! How could she have endured the thought a second? His kiss was fatal to his hopes. It opened her eyes to her own heart. She did not love him. She did love—

"I see I was mistaken," he said bitterly. "It is too good to be true."

"Oh, George, forgive me!" she besought. "From my soul I wish I could promise, but I cannot."

"Then I cannot delay longer. My father's blood is crying to me from the ground. I am losing time. Good-by."

While yet she was sobbing over his disappointment and her own he slipped past her and was gone. Hastily darting in upon his mother he bade her farewell, then called to a servant to saddle his horse. He spent the interval in priming his arms and assuring himself of their preparation for service. His face was stern and his bosom adamant. As he hurried past the quarters to the stables, the darkies stared at him as at a wraith. All day he had kept himself out of sight and they did not know he was near.

Edith was in a frenzy. She walked the floor wringing her hands. One moment she reproached herself as culpable because she had not had diplomacy enough to temporize until the boy was out of danger; the next her conscience acquitted her of blame. She ran up stairs to a window which commanded a view of the surrounding hills. There was the young soldier ascending a ridge not more than eighty rods away. She had hoped he might have changed his course. Alas! alas! Down the steps she ran again and out upon the porch. The day was cold, but her blood was on fire and she felt no pang of its chill. She stood gazing in that unhallowed direction, locking and unlocking her hands in feverish dread. She tried to pray, but could not even think what she wished to say, and inarticulately murmured over and over again, "Mercy! mercy! oh, God, have mercy!" Until the actual deed was done she had hope of interruption.

Nearly a quarter of a mile from the house, on the way the Federal had taken, an abrupt dip of the ground and a shallow streamlet marked the boundary of Captain Seddon's property. Beyond lay a hill, steep at the bottom but rounding toward the top with a gentle slope. The upper window commanded a view of the whole, but from the gallery Edith could only see the crest. George and the young soldier were both hidden from view, but she knew that one was spurring his horse across the low ground and the other still toiling upward.

Promised interruption came from a source she had not anticipated. While she was on one side of the house a squad of Wire's ubiquitous militia approached on the other. One of the Dupey darkies who lacked Lige's fidelity had seen George arrive, contrary to the latter's supposition, and had reported to the post. In consequence here was a detachment for his arrest. For the time all Edith's senses seemed to have passed into sight. Before she knew the men were near a horse and its rider stood within arm's reach. For once the sight of soldiers did not alarm her; there was no room left in her mind for fear.

Wire himself was not with the party, but the leader was little behind him in brutality. "We want George Dupey," he said. "Bid him come out."

"He is not here," she answered.

If only he were! Death a thousand times before his present business!

"It is a damned lie!" the man began to say, when one of his subordinates caught him by the sleeve.

"Look!"

Edith also saw. George was just emerging above the intervening obstructions and the blue-coated soldier had gained the top of the hill.

"By Jeroos'lem! that furthest fellow looks like he might have on our uniform. Who is the other?"

One of the men had known George all his life. "The bird we are after," he said.

With an ear-splitting shout the men started in pursuit. Both the others heard it and looked back to discover the cause. Until

that moment the foremost had not known he was in danger, and now he turned irresolutely from right to left and left to right in natural indecision. George was without uniform, but his manner was unmistakable.

"Go on! Oh, don't stop! don't stop!" cried Edith, well-nigh beside herself. She urged him on as though he could hear.

She was not alone on the porch now. Mrs. Dupey and Nell and the house servants had clustered about her, none of them perfectly informed of the situation but all roused to the highest excitement. The mother thought only of her son.

The question in Edith's mind was whether George, in terror for his own life, would not abandon his murderous purpose to save himself. If he would! Her life seemed to her to hang on that thread.

Evidently he had no such intention. When the shout reached him he quickened his horse's speed, riding straight ahead. He was already in range of his victim, but he was waiting till he had overcome the protection of the hill's summit and could take absolutely sure aim.

The young soldier after that instant's hesitation did not falter, but took to his heels with a deer's swiftness. But what did it avail against the sharp ring of the horse's hoofs on the frozen ground, in as relentless pursuit as destiny, only faster? Every moment shortened the distance; with each backward glance the gain seemed incredible.

To the watchers on the porch the seconds were hours. The militia were lost to view in the low ground skirting the ridge. George was on top of the hill, the soldier only a few hundred yards in advance; he looked back once more—hope of escape in this way there was none. One course was left. He drew his revolver from his belt and aimed upon his pursuer, who did not check his pace, but made ready his own weapon. It was a question of calm nerve and perfect aim. Mrs. Dupey, gradually comprehending the tragic scene, understanding though she could not see all, screamed aloud. Edith was turned to stone. The servants, awed by her white face, repressed their talk.

The militia came in plain sight, galloping up the ascent. Too late! A whiff of smoke—George rode on. Before the report from this reached them, another whiff, and the boy in blue fell, never, never more to rise!

Suspense as to George's fate braced Edith a moment longer.

The militia were sufficiently near the

brow of the hill to witness the deed. Their spurs sank deep into their horses' flanks, and simultaneously their curses and pistol-shots filled the air. George halted a moment, emptied the chambers of his revolver into their midst, then waving it defiantly above his head turned his horse to a woods near by, leaped the fence, and was quickly lost to their sight.

(To be continued.)

TELEGRAPHING WITHOUT WIRES.

BY ERNESTO MANCINI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

THE scientific discovery now uppermost in the public mind is that of telegraphy without wires. The appliances hitherto in use have been so perfect as to enable us to send several telegrams at the same time over a single wire with giddy rapidity. Moreover the various parts composing the telegraphic network of the globe can be so quickly joined one with another as to reduce every loss of time to a minimum. Thus a telegram to-day makes a circuit of the world in fifty-five minutes; and not long ago, on the occasion of the boat-race between Oxford and Cambridge, a telegram carried the news of the victory to Valparaiso in fifty-five seconds.

Despite all this perfection attained by the modern telegraph, there were some who thought another step should be taken in order to liberate it from its subjection to that wire of communication without which all electrical transmission was impossible. For it is well known how often immense difficulties are met with, not only in placing in position these wires of communication, but also in keeping them in good condition, protecting them from easy injury, or in repairing them when such injury has been done.

In all the researches and experiments made, one idea constantly prevailed; namely, that the discovery of practical telegraphy without wires must be reached by means of electricity. And it was surmised that the phenomenon which should serve as a basis

was to be either that of electric induction between two isolated circuits or that of the propagation of secondary currents in the earth and in the water when the extremes of the circuit in which the primary current passes are in communication with the earth or with the water. Before the middle of the present century it was known that electrodynamic induction may manifest itself at a considerable distance through obstacles; as early as 1842, in fact, Henry observed that the discharge of a Leyden jar placed in the garret of the house where he was caused some sparks to fly off from a circuit placed in the cellar of the same house.

In 1884 the extension of the telegraph and telephone lines made evident the intensity of the electromagnetic perturbations; at London these showed themselves to be intense between the telegraph and telephone circuits, although between these there was a distance of over thirty yards, the one being placed in the ground and the other on the roofs of the houses. And even between two telegraph lines ten miles apart these effects of induction showed themselves.

In exactly the same year, 1884, Mr. Preece began to give attention to electrodynamic induction as a means of telegraphic communication without wires, so that in 1886 this transmission was practically obtained in the great post-office building in London between a circuit placed in

the basement and one in the highest part of the building. The signals were effected by means of a system which Mr. Preece always used in his own researches. This consisted in producing passages and interruptions of the current in one circuit, which in their turn provoke in the distant circuit other passages and interruptions, made perceptible by the sounds of a telephone interposed in the second line.

The new system, as we shall see, made rapid progress through the labors of Mr. Preece and was capable of practical application. But it is only justice to remark that the principle of telegraphy by induction had been described in 1880 by Professor Trowbridge, of Harvard University. Between the Boston observatory and the city of Cambridge there ran a wire for the purpose of transmitting the time of day. In this wire the electric circuit was interrupted every second by a clock. Professor Trowbridge discovered that by joining a telephone to a wire one hundred and fifty yards long, running parallel with the first circuit and having one end in the earth, the ticking of the clock was distinctly heard at a distance of more than a mile. The professor immediately published his observations, asserting the possibility of transmitting telegrams without wires, and, giving free flight to his fancy, the experimenter claimed that, by means of a powerful current and a long cable stretched between Nova Scotia and Florida, some day men might succeed in receiving on the coast of France, in a secondary circuit, the signals sent across the Atlantic.

To Mr. Preece belongs the honor of having realized these hopes in a modest degree by means of a system which may be described as follows: Two broad surfaces, good conductors of electricity, are immersed in the soil or in the water, and joined by a wire in which are inserted a voltaic pile and a key, while at a distance another wire is arranged in the same way except that it has a telephone intercalated. When the current is made to pass in the first wire the circuit is closed between the two surfaces by means of currents which pass through the earth,

diffusing themselves over a great distance; and if the distance be not too great the currents encounter the other two surfaces, or electrodes, thus originating a derivative current in the second circuit, which causes the receiving apparatus to function. As receiver, a galvanometer may be used, being an instrument sufficiently sensitive to very weak currents, but demanding a position of perfect immobility. As this last condition is lacking on board a ship, for example, a simple and practical receiver in the form of a telephone may be employed, from which a practical operator can receive by ear the telegrams as they are sent.

To test water as a medium for transmitting the current, Messrs. W. and E. Rathenau made some experiments on Lake Wann, near Potsdam. Two electrodes made of broad metallic surfaces were immersed in the water at a distance of five hundred meters from each other, and were joined by a wire in which passed the current of five hundred accumulators placed on the shore. Every interruption of the current was perfectly perceptible in a telephone intercalated in another wire stretched at a distance of three miles from the first, supported by two boats, and having the extremities similarly immersed in the water of the lake. The presence of some little islands between the shore and the boats did not produce any effect on the transmissions. During these experiments the attempt was also made to convert the audible signals into optical ones, and to register these by means of photography. Again in Germany experiments of this kind have recently been made with two lines arranged parallel to each other and with electrodes made of iron poles or of coils of iron wire, buried deeply in the earth; the result has been a successful sending of signals to a distance of about eleven miles.

Matters were standing at this point, and already bright prophecies were being made for the new system, when all of a sudden an ingenious invention has come to show how these things can be done much more simply, and with results by far more certain and practical. The discovery is due to

William Marconi, of Bologna, a youth of little more than twenty years, who, without concerning himself about the way followed by Preece and his imitators, decided to resort to the electrical undulations discovered by Hertz, and to make use of the properties possessed by these undulations for the sending of signals to a distance.

It is known that forty years ago Maxwell demonstrated that an electric discharge, or a spark, which flies off between two bodies of a given form and size instead of being composed of a single discharge is made up of a number of discharges which succeed one another with immense rapidity between the two conductors, and from such vibrations of the discharge we derive the method of calculating their duration. The appliances intended to produce these discharges were called oscillators; and first by the labors of Hertz, then by those of other physicists, in particular of Professor Righi, of the University of Bologna, some of these were successfully constructed in which the discharges are produced by hundreds of millions per second. In general the oscillators are made of two metallic spheres near to each other and immersed in a liquid, as oil of vaseline for example, and receive the discharge from a Ruhmkorff coil.

The very rapid oscillations of the discharge between the spheres give rise to a series of waves which are propagated into space with a velocity of about two hundred thousand miles per second. Their propagation is effected by means of the cosmic ether, that body which we suppose fills everything, and the existence of which, in spite of its hypothetical nature, everything demonstrates. Hertz, by a series of beautiful experiments, proved that these undulations present all the phenomena characteristic of those of light; that is, reflection, refraction, etc., according as they fall on bodies that are transparent for the undulations themselves, that is, bad conductors, or upon opaque bodies, that is, good conductors.

The oscillating discharge possesses another property: embodied in a straight wire, with a small quantity of electricity, it

is able to provoke, by means of the undulations which break forth from the wire, other currents in a wire remote from the first, placed at a distance far greater than that at which the phenomenon of induction is obtained.

It was during his frequent visits to the laboratory of Professor Righi, and his observation of the beautiful and complete experiments there made, that Marconi must have thought of the possibility of applying the oscillating discharges and their effects to the transmission of signals to a distance. Having made some preliminary experiments in a place of his own in Bologna, Marconi was convinced of the possibility of it, and by assiduous labor sought to construct appliances capable of sending the undulations and of receiving them again under the form of graphic signals. Having prepared his apparatus, Marconi, who is the son of an English mother, repaired to England, where he found in Preece a sincere admirer of his discovery, who furnished for him the means of trying various experiments. The good results of these soon made a great sensation.

The success obtained by Marconi with his apparatus induced the Hon. Signor Brin to invite at once the young inventor to come to Rome and pursue some experiments which might be of great importance for the marine. And these experiments were many times repeated in the palace of the minister of the navy, exciting interest and wonder, not only from the fact that the invention appeared stripped of that vagueness and mystery which had surrounded the reports of the discovery in England, but also because no part of the apparatus was kept concealed.

The telegraphic apparatus of Marconi is composed of two non-reversible parts, the transmitter and the receiver. The first is made of a Ruhmkorff coil, the discharge of which is produced between the two spheres of Righi's oscillator. In communication with the oscillator is a wire fixed on a long vertical wooden pole. From this wire, an ordinary conductor, Marconi obtains the electrical undulations which spread in every direction in quantity directly proportional

to the length of the wire, traversing conductors and overcoming non-conductors by means of the phenomena of diffusion and reflection analogous to those by which light may indirectly illuminate an atmosphere. Marconi thinks he can prove that the distance reached by the electrical undulations increases in direct proportion to the square of the height of the transmitting wire fixed on the vertical pole.

For the receiving apparatus he takes advantage of a property possessed by the Lodge tube. This tube is of glass and filled with metallic powder, with which are connected the ends of two wires entering the tube at its two extremities. The powder, because of the oxidation of the particles which compose it, is the worst possible conductor of electricity; but no sooner is it struck by the electric wave than the particles adhere together, removing thus every obstacle to the passage of the current, if the tube is intercalated in a circuit. If, then, by a slight shake the cohesion of the powder is broken, this is no longer a conductor and the current is broken.

Marconi has modified Lodge's coherer, making it much more sensitive. Within the little tube of glass the wires communicate instead with two little silver cylinders about four hundredths of an inch apart, and between them is inserted a powder composed of ninety-six parts of nickel and four parts of silver. In the tube a vacuum is made down to the pressure of one tenth of a millimeter, and before closing the tube at the lamp some vapors of mercury are allowed to penetrate it. This tube *sees* the electric waves just as our eye does the waves of light.

The receiving apparatus has, then, one of these tubes, one end of which is in communication with the end of another vertical wire fixed to a pole, similarly to the arrangement of the transmitter, and the length of which must oscillate within fixed limits in order that the receiver may function well. The other electrode of the coherer may be in communication with the soil, or have, as in the experiments made at Rome, a long metallic ribbon by which the electricity

coming from the wire to the tube is scattered. But the coherer is also a part of another circuit which contains a pile and an electromagnet.

When the wave strikes the little tube, making it a conductor, the circuit in which the pile is found is closed, and then the electromagnet acts and, by drawing a small lever, closes a second circuit, in which is placed a battery of dry piles, a Morse apparatus, and another electromagnet, which causes the coherer to be struck by a little hammer, suspending its conductivity.

It is not difficult to comprehend, even without diagrams, how the apparatus functions. If the electric wave comes from a distant transmitter and strikes the little tube, the current passes, the electromagnet closes the second circuit, and the little Morse wheel begins to mark the strips of paper; but immediately the little hammer strikes upon the coherer and everything returns to rest, leaving a point traced on the paper. It would therefore seem possible to transmit only signals in the form of dots; but if many dots are made to follow one another rapidly, the Morse machine does not succeed in giving them distinctly, and so ends by marking a line. Thus is obtained the conventional alphabet.

The principle is very simple, and the inventor has managed to give to his ingenious apparatus a great sensitiveness by eliminating with subtle artifice—that is, by placing about at convenient points little receiving apparatuses—all the reciprocal influences of the various parts of his invention which might greatly diminish its sensitiveness. In the palace of the minister of the navy the telegrams were transmitted through two stories of the building, and it was wonderful to see the Morse apparatus writing of itself, while the force that put it in motion came in mysterious, invisible, silent waves, passing through the walls as a ray of light passes through limpid glass.

It has been very justly said that Marconi's invention reminds us of Morse's. Thus in Morse's day the pile and the electromagnet were already known, but it is not to be denied that the modern telegraph

came from Morse's invention. Marconi's discovery dates, we may say, from yesterday. It will, of course, receive further perfections in the course of future experiments. However, there is no prospect of an immediate revolution in modern telegraphy, as some think. The present system still has a long life before it. But it may receive from the wireless method a great and useful aid, while it is not improbable that also in the field of science the new experiments may lead to a more complete study of the nature of Hertz's waves. It is certain, too, that in communications between one

ship and another, or between ships and the land, Marconi's system must be of excellent service; the more so that the state of the atmosphere does not show any influence on the transmission of signals. The future will tell us to what limits of distance these signals may reach. The rapid and splendid conquests of science have accustomed us to the brightest hopes and boldest hypotheses, and only future experiments can tell us whether it may be possible to compel signals to follow a single direction, and if these can be isolated from the influence of other electrical movements that disturb them.

JUSTIN S. MORRILL, THE OLDEST UNITED STATES SENATOR.

BY E. J. EDWARDS.

WHEN the last leaves of the autumn of 1865 were falling, Solomon Foot in a voice made almost inaudible by grief announced to the federal Senate the death of his colleague, Jacob Collamer; and when the first hints of the spring succeeding were noticed Charles Sumner with brief but impressive words told the Senate that Mr. Foot had just followed Mr. Collamer "across the narrow line." Thus within five months Vermont and the nation lost two senators who were statesmen pre-eminent. The little state had by their abilities gained influence in public affairs overmatched by that of no other commonwealth.

Public opinion in Washington and in Vermont quickly identified the man deemed worthy to succeed Senator Collamer, and yet with the election of this man the gap in the Senate would be only partly filled. "Can Vermont match both these distinguished sons?" senators asked. The question was not unanswered long. The indicated successor of Collamer was Justin S. Morrill, who was then serving out his sixth

term in the House of Representatives. There he had gained one of the chief triumphs of statesmanship, for his name was permanently associated with a measure that marked an era in the history of the government. It was a measure of which Mr. Blaine once wrote that it "effected a change



JUSTIN S. MORRILL.

equivalent to a revolution in the financial and economic system of government"—the Morrill tariff. It was, however, deemed a public disadvantage immediately to transfer Mr. Morrill from the House, where he had special responsibilities at that time, to the Senate, hence the vacancy created by Senator Collamer's death was temporarily filled by the appointment of Luke P. Poland.

Before it was possible for the legislature to elect Mr. Morrill senator, the death of Senator Foot entailed the governor's appointment of his successor. The executive sent to the Senate one of Vermont's young men, younger by twenty years, the reports declared, than Mr. Morrill was. But when the senators saw this new associate go down the aisle to take the oath they wondered if error was not in that report. Time had given him physical precocity if he was only thirty-seven. There was maturity in his hair and beard and his shoulders seemed rounded with the weight of more than thirty-seven years. The report was true, however, and before a year had passed the Senate learned that this young senator, George F. Edmunds, was as mature in character and precocious in intellectual development as in physical characteristics. Thus it happened that even before Mr. Morrill took his seat in the Senate it had been demonstrated that Vermont could match the two great senators who had so long served her and the nation. For twenty-four years Edmunds and Morrill were colleagues. The relation was voluntarily broken when Mr. Edmunds resigned his seat, after twenty-five years of service.

The choice of these senators by Vermont and the repeated choice of them as their own successors tore to tatters all the traditions of the essential means to gain political honors and preeminence in the Senate. Their careers confounded those ambitious men who studied and analyzed other careers that they might find the mystic charm that brought honor and power.

Dissimilar in many tastes and intellectual gifts, unlike in personality and temperament, nevertheless Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Morrill admirably complemented and supplemented each other. It has been thought by sena-

tors of long experience that together they furnished the ideal example of what the representation of a state in the Senate should be. Mr. Morrill has been spoken of as the exception that proves the truth of Mr. Blaine's familiar rule that a career in Congress, to be of great influence and national consequence, is possible only for him who begins service there before he is forty. Mr. Morrill was well past forty when he entered the House and half-way between fifty and sixty when he was elected senator. He brought the fame of an era-making national measure to the Senate and his mental impress was as great, although not as conspicuous, upon all the financial and economic measures adopted by his party in the Senate as it was upon the Morrill tariff. How far along in life he was when he began his career in the Senate may perhaps be well suggested by comparison. Douglas split the Democratic party and marshaled one wing of it when he was only four years older than the age at which Mr. Morrill entered the House. Blaine was speaker of the House when he was four years younger than Morrill was at the time he first took the oath there. Garfield had made his career in that body and been chosen to the Senate when only four years older than Morrill was when he began public life, and McKinley, who matched Morrill's achievement by naming a great protection measure, had long served in the House, been chosen governor twice, and inaugurated as president before he reached the age at which Morrill became senator.

These examples culled from many must suggest one of the unusual, almost unprecedented characteristics of Mr. Morrill's career. That he should to-day, at almost Gladstone's age, be found in his seat in the Senate is of course a distinction—one that is perhaps unparalleled in American public life excepting by John Quincy Adams. It ranks Mr. Morrill in venerable public service with Thiers, Palmerston, Brougham, and Gladstone. But it is after all a marvel of mental and physical health, not a triumph of intellect in gaining and maintaining influences of vast consequence to the nation.

Mr. Morrill went to the House trained for public service only by experience as a merchant. Busy men of commerce and trade have gone there and to the Senate and been of good service, but none was like Mr. Morrill. The politics of the caucus and of the districts did not send him there. Like Edmunds, he knew no politics in the narrower meaning of the word. When the Vermont legislature named him as the successor of Collamer, not a pledge was given nor a promise made. The higher politics which is the servant of spontaneous public opinion made him senator, and no man could say, "I did it."

His distinctive personal characteristic, a certain charm of gentle grace and simple dignity, was even more conspicuous in 1853 than in 1897. The mellowing impress of gathering years has only touched the senator's person. The unaffected serenity, the placid temper, the atmosphere of cultivation and true refinement which distinguishes Senator Morrill in his venerable days were his personal characteristics when in Fillmore's administration he began public life. They may have been even more conspicuous then. He took his place in the House when men were hot because of the Fugitive Slave Law, and when the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was blazing the path for the coming of the Republican party. New England was taunted by some passionate men with being dominated by the commercial, dollar-loving impulse, which, as they said, tainted with a vulgar atmosphere her politics and her public men. And when these things were said Morrill furnished the swift refutation.

He had come from a rural counting-room, but he had the grace of those who are bred in refinement, the quiet charm of the scholar, and those who did not know what his vocation had been judged, when they saw him in that turbulent body, that he was one of those whose life is spent with books and who stray from the library or a life of leisure to the excitements of public place.

Morrill quickly made it clear that grace does not involve lack of strength, nor cultivation a dreamy or effeminate nature. For men he always had the kindest con-

sideration. He had Seward's patience and forbearance without his condescension or patronizing way. But for measures he could plead with the obstinate persistence of Thaddeus Stevens or could denounce with the vigor of Thurman. His speeches are full of sentences that have the charm of literature applied to economic questions, and they contain blunt Anglo-Saxon condemnation for measures that he thought faulty. Wendell Phillips could not have better worded the terse epigrams with which Morrill condemned the legal tender of the Bill of 1862. There is the Phillips' ring in these words describing the legal tender feature: "It is not blessed by one sound precedent, but damned by all." Or this in answer to those who justified the bill as a war measure: "It is not waged against the enemy, but might well make him grin with delight." Or again: "Chinese wooden guns for the army might as well be provided as paper money alone for the treasury."

Again, Morrill's speech in opposition to the Bland Silver Dollar Bill, beginning with the assertion, "The measure is a fearful assault upon public credit," was a fine illustration of the ability of one who is considerate and courteous in all personal relations to marshal the resources of scorn, sarcasm, and invective against faulty or dangerous public measures. But in all Mr. Morrill's speeches the prevailing characteristic was that of the essayist who knows how to write with force and elegance rather than the orator who speaks for the moment.

It was with financial problems, questions affecting revenues and the currency, that Mr. Morrill was early identified and has been chiefly associated from his first term throughout a public service that lacks six years of half a century's length, and in these venerable years there must be some sense of vindicated judgment, some gratification at the recognition of his statesmanship, and in the fact that conventions are held, commissions appointed, and national issues of presidential years created to carry out in these later days almost every measure he urged with respect to the money of the government, gold, silver, or paper.

Mr. Morrill always disclaims any exclusive merit for the measure with which his name will become historic among American statesmen. Yet his services in preparing the bill and in urging and expounding the protective features of it, which were of such mighty consequence to the American people, wholly justified the selection of him to report the bill and champion it in the House. None but himself of the Ways and Means Committee ever disparaged his influential relation to that measure, which, as has been said by one of the greatest of Americans, gave "industrial and financial strength to the Union in the hour of its dire necessity, in the very crisis of its fate."

Mr. Morrill's career has been in another respect unusual if not wholly singular. He gained influence that is reflected in almost every line of the financial or economic legislation of his time, an influence which of itself was great enough to prevent the San Domingo annexation project from being consummated; and yet he has never ranked with the orators of his generation. Like Edmunds, he had not the rhetorician's distinction. Not that he and his colleague were silent statesmen. A capacity to expound and convince is essential to success in establishing legislative measures. The Vermont senators often addressed the Senate, Edmunds in quiet, conversational tones, without emotion or any impressive accent. His spoken words did not appeal to the galleries, although the Senate always listened with attention to him. If he did not empty the seats on the floor of the Senate he never filled the gallery benches, for he never spoke for the galleries. Morrill's way was wholly unlike that of his colleague. He prepared his more important addresses as the essayist does. They were polished for literary charm. They were of the kind that appeal best through type, and that is doubtless one reason why he preferred to read his more important preparations. He was not dumb in debate. He could and often did speak without notes, but when he called upon his highest resources he committed his thoughts to paper.

That habit necessarily placed Mr. Morrill in another rank than that of the orators of Congress. He did not practice the tricks of rhetoric. He never was suspected of memorizing a speech and, actor-like, studying his gestures before a mirror, as one of his earlier associates was believed to do. And yet, even when reading an address, there was always that characteristic of grace, elegance, cultivation which caused these recitations to be free from the fatal dullness that usually attends the reading of essays in the Senate. His voice was musical, clear, and never monotonous. He held his manuscript in his hand, never permitting himself to suggest the sermonizer by reading from an improvised pulpit, as others in the Senate had done.

Upon one occasion a few years ago, when a subject in which the people were taking unusual interest was before the Senate, Mr. Morrill announced that he would upon the following day address the Senate upon the proposed measure. Such notification from a senator known to read his speeches served almost invariably to give the senators an informal recess in the cloak-room and to leave the gallery free to the unwary tourist. Mr. Morrill, however, found few empty senatorial seats and he saw that the galleries were well filled. The senators stayed and the visitors came to listen, not to oratory, but to an essay. The compliment clearly was pleasing to Morrill, for as he rose with his manuscript in his hand he bowed almost imperceptibly, yet in graceful acknowledgment, to his associates, and then he spoke an informal sentence or two with his face half turned toward the rear gallery. It was plain that he was thus testing his voice and that it had occurred to him that if these visitors had come to hear him speak it should not be his fault if they failed to hear him. Then he turned to his manuscript and began: "Mr. President, when a thing is worth doing at all it is worth doing gracefully," and in the spirit of that quality the address was written and in its manner delivered, so that it seemed for the moment that not in the Senate chamber but in some peaceful audience-room a con-

genial company had come together to listen to something that was far remote from the intense world of statesmanship and politics. Yet this address was as earnest and persuasive as any Morrill ever made, and was afterward declared by one senator to have been "rocklike in its logic."

Mr. Morrill's enduring fame will rest upon the measure, tremendous in its national influence, which is identified by his name. His contemporary fame with politicians is based upon political successes covering nearly fifty years which are due to none of the arts of the party manager; with statesmen that he should have accomplished so much that is of vast influence without ever having made a rhetorical speech; with the Pharisees that he, a simple merchant, should have the characteristics of the kindly gentleman and the atmosphere of true cultivation; and with all who know or ever saw him that he should have maintained during

nearly fifty years of public life the simplicity which is an ingredient of a noble character and that a charm of native grace should never have been venerated by contact with the ambitions and passions that play the great part in Washington.

It has been said that the Senate of to-day is not the Senate of the older day; that the intensity and the materialistic spirit of the time characterizes that body now, and that Mr. Morrill remains the solitary type of the dignified and serene Senate of an earlier time. But it has seemed to some that another is the better view: that the venerable senator is not to be esteemed so much a type of the past as a suggestion of what the American gentleman and public servant may be in that future day when our form of government and our development as a nation are characterized less by the newness of its first century and more by the maturity of later generations.

"LOHENGRIN."

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

IN every language there are certain poems that seem specially adapted to music. There are the lyric poems, and composers select such poems for musical setting because their forms are rhythmic and their words melodious. There are other poems and poetic stories that seem best adapted to recital or representation. These are the dramatic poems. It seems to have been a very early custom to recite the dramatic stories to the accompaniment of music. This is quite different from the setting of lyrics to music. Then it was found that both could be united, and out of the union of poetry, drama, music, and story came the modern opera.

The word opera may be said to mean literally "the work," and it is regarded by critics as the highest form of musical expression. The performance of a grand opera means the employment of many arts and it is itself the highest form of art we have. The opera took its present form in

the latter part of the sixteenth century. It originated in Italy, and one style of opera is still called "the Italian opera." From the first the music appears to have been regarded as the chief thing, and in all the earlier examples of opera and in many of the best known modern Italian operas the poem or story is of secondary importance. The chief aim of the composer was to provide a melodious musical setting to the words by means of recitatives, arias, duets, etc. The dramatic interest in the story was often sacrificed to the musical effect. The dramatic progress of the story would in many instances come to a complete stop while a grand aria held the audience spell-bound. The poems or books were adapted from novels and plays, and were sometimes original stories. Many were strong and powerful dramas that gave fine opportunities for the composer to employ his talents upon the lyrics or to work up effective and sonorous choruses at the climax of the dramatic

interest. Every variety of story has been used as themes for operas, from tragedy to the lightest comedy and farce.

Of late years, particularly in Germany, increased attention has been given to the themes of operas. More attention has been given to the words, more consistent and more dramatic stories have been used, and the words and music have been brought into closer relationship. In the operas of Wagner, and in the works of some of those who have followed him, words and music are of equal importance. The music is less decorative and more dramatic and the words are never sacrificed to the music. This advanced form of opera has been aptly called the music-drama.

In looking over the great mass of the operas that have been produced within the past hundred years we find many that have stories of real dramatic and poetic interest quite apart from the music to which they are wedded. Examples may be seen in "Lucia," founded on one of Scott's novels, "Carmen," adapted from Prosper Merimée's romance, "Faust," adapted from Goethe's tragedy, and many others. In "Lohengrin" we have a legendary story made into a music-drama that in part illustrates Wagner's theories in regard to the real objects sought in the production of his music-dramas. Of these theories much has been written by Wagner and his followers. The chief point is that the opera should be a consistent, dramatic whole, music and words being of equal value. This becomes clear when we come to examine the work itself.

Before the production of "Lohengrin" the story was practically unknown. When we see or read it we recognize the fact that its author drew his materials from the myth of the Holy Grail, the legend of King Arthur, and the German legend of the Swanboat. The story is picturesque, legendary, and dramatic. It is a tragic love story and is based upon the superstitions and beliefs of the people of Germany in the tenth century. Christianity had invaded the country, but the belief in the gods still survived and there was a general belief in magic arts and in the power of miracles. The ordeal of

battle was believed to be directly guided by Heaven and therefore a very convenient method of getting at the opinion of Heaven in regard to any matter in dispute.

The prelude to "Lohengrin" begins with high, soft chords on the violins and the music slowly descends till it mingles with the beautiful swan-song. The composer's aim is to symbolize in music the descent of the Holy Grail from heaven and to hint at the approach of the Knight of the Swan. This is the key to the music of "Lohengrin"—to suggest, to typify, and to symbolize the theme and the characters of the story.

When the story begins the counts and nobles of Brabant have assembled with their people at Antwerp to meet Henry, king of Germany. Among the nobles is Frederick of Telramund and his wife Ortrud. King Henry tells the assembled nobles that he has called them together to take council against the invasions of the Hungarians. He finds there is great disorder in Brabant and he appeals to Frederick to explain the cause of so much civil strife and confusion. Frederick says, with a great show of virtue, that at the death of the late duke he was appointed guardian of the duke's daughter Elsa and her young brother Gottfried. The boy and the girl had gone one day into the forest together and Elsa had returned alone, saying that the boy was lost. He had at one time hoped to marry his ward Elsa, but she had repulsed him and he had then married Ortrud. He now believed Elsa had murdered her brother. Frederick admitted that he would benefit by the boy's death and claimed that, the boy being dead, he was the rightful heir and successor of the duke.

The people receive this accusation of Elsa with dismay and unbelief, and the king says he will at once sit in judgment upon the matter. The king's herald calls Elsa and she approaches this improvised court. Her eyes are cast down and the people look on her with surprise and pity. The king tells her of the dreadful charge made against her. She is mute, except to mourn for her lost brother. He cannot understand her refusal to speak and calls upon her to



ELSA AND LOHENGRIN.

defend herself. Her only reply is the recital of a dream in which she saw a knight in shining armor who came to her defense. The people are greatly moved by the scene and the king decides that the matter must be settled by ordeal of battle. Frederick dares any one among the men present to fight for her honor. Who wins in such a battle is clearly the favorite of Heaven and thus Heaven's will may be known by the result of the battle. All the men present decline the honor of defending Elsa's cause. The herald calls upon any of the men present to come forward to the trial, but all refuse. It is clear Elsa is guilty. Heaven has deserted her. Elsa's only hope is in prayer to heaven for aid.

F—Feb.

Suddenly there is a murmur among the people on the outskirts of the throng. A marvel! A wonder! A knight in armor is approaching upon the river, in a boat drawn by a white swan! To their amazement the swan draws the boat to the shore. The people receive the stranger with reverence, as they believe he has come in answer to Elsa's prayer. Frederick and Ortrud are amazed and secretly alarmed. Elsa stands spellbound at the sight of the knight of her dreams.

It is Lohengrin, the son of Parcifal, and a knight of the Holy Grail, though he does not say so. He thanks his swan and bids him return. He then pays his respects to the king, and the king and people welcome him as one evidently sent

from heaven. Lohengrin asks Elsa for the honor of being her champion, and she accepts his service and promises herself and the dukedom as his reward. He then tells her she must promise never to ask his name, his home, or whence he came. She eagerly promises to obey and he leads her to the king and places her in his care while he prepares for the ordeal of battle. With great ceremony the ring is formed and the two knights prepare to fight. The men warn Frederick against the fight with such a powerful stranger, but he persists in his accusation against Elsa and declares Heaven will uphold the truth. The battle is short and Frederick is disarmed. Elsa is clearly innocent and she joyfully accepts Lohengrin



MADAME NORDICA AS ELSA.

as her promised husband and the people welcome him as a messenger bearing the very will of Heaven.

Round this interesting and dramatic story is woven a continuous stream of the most suggestive and beautiful music. There is no formal sequence of recitative, aria, duet, and quartet, as in the Italian operas. There are no lyrics, nor are the words arranged in set verses that can be repeated to the same music. The music is seldom repeated. It changes with every line of the words. It is the mirror of the story, flowing on without pause beside every scene of the swiftly moving tale. There are no formal arias or duets and yet there are beautiful strains that often flow together into melodic dialogues. There is no ac-

companiment in the conventional sense. The orchestra is a musical commentary upon the story. It is constantly changing in time, in key, in harmony, rhythm, and tonal color to enhance and illumine the meaning of the words. The music seems also to clothe the characters of the play with special musical attributes. Certain melodies are associated with each character, and these melodies, while infinitely varied, always appear in connection with each character, and form, as it were, a melodic vesture or crown whereby each character may be recognized.

In the next act Frederick and Ortrud, crushed by his defeat, sit at night upon the steps of the minster, bewailing their unhappy lot. Ortrud, gazing upon the brightly lighted windows of the palace where Lohengrin is staying, declares that Lohengrin's victory was won by sorcery. She declares that he dare not give his name or dwelling-place, as that would break the magic spell whereby he won his victory. She urges Frederick to entice Elsa to ask Lohengrin his name. This would break the spell and they would be revenged.

The door of the balcony of Elsa's house is opened and Elsa comes out to look upon the night. She sings of her happiness, and Ortrud, mad with rage and jealousy, resolves to ruin her, and, sending Frederick away, appeals to Elsa for aid and sympathy. Elsa, thinking no evil, says she will come down. Ortrud then calls upon the ancient gods to aid her in her scheme of revenge. Elsa comes forth to meet Ortrud and says she will appeal to the king to restore her and her husband to public favor. Ortrud, while pretending friendship, begins to poison her mind against Lohengrin. Elsa, still thinking no evil, offers her sympathy and then returns to the house.

Morning soon dawns and the king's heralds summon the people to hear the

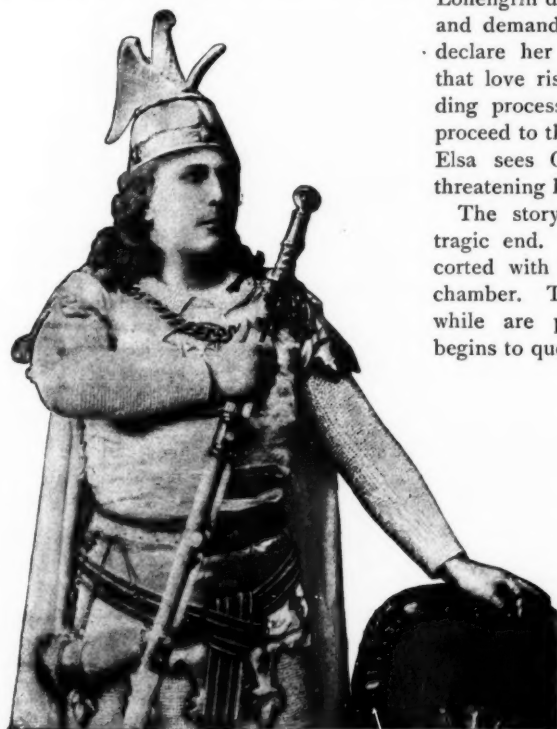
king's commands. Frederick is to be punished for his false accusation against Elsa and Lohengrin is to be the successor of the duke and to lead the army in the war against the Hungarians. Frederick mingles among the people and declares he will unmask their hero, but they do not listen to him, as the wedding procession is approaching the minster. Elsa with her maids comes to meet the bridegroom. Just as she reaches the steps of the church Ortrud appears and insists that, as she outranks Elsa, she must enter the church first. Elsa, though frightened by Ortrud's sudden appearance, insists upon her own rights and that Ortrud has no rights now that her husband has been disgraced. Ortrud retorts that Elsa is about to wed a knight she dare not name. Elsa at first is overwhelmed with surprise and indignation and then maintains the honor of her knight and refuses to listen longer to slanders against

him. The people take Elsa's side and bid Ortrud hold her peace, but she cries out that Lohengrin won the fight by magic arts and declares that Elsa dare not give his name.

The king and Lohengrin enter from the palace with their train, but are stopped by the confusion about the entrance of the minster. The king asks what the strife means and Elsa appeals to Lohengrin for protection, saying that in befriending Ortrud she meant no harm. Frederick appears and in a stormy scene declares Lohengrin used magic arts in the battle and dares him to give his name and station. Lohengrin replies that no one has the right to question him save Elsa. Frederick manages to reach Elsa and tells her that should Lohengrin be wounded ever so slightly his magic power would be lost, and urges her to admit him to the house that night to wound Lohengrin and save her from his magic art. Lohengrin drives Frederick away from Elsa and demands that if Elsa doubt him she declare her doubts at once. She insists that love rises over all doubts. The wedding procession is reunited and they all proceed to the minster, yet at the very door Elsa sees Ortrud lifting a warning and threatening hand against her.

The story now rapidly approaches its tragic end. Elsa and Lohengrin are escorted with wedding songs to their bridal chamber. They are left alone and for a while are peacefully happy. Elsa then begins to question him about his name and

home. He begs her to trust his love alone. She persists in doubting his love because he will not reveal his name. Suddenly Frederick and some of his friends break into the room. Lohengrin defends himself and Frederick is killed at Elsa's feet. The frightened attendants take the body of Frederick away, and Lohengrin, calling Elsa's maids, bids them take her to the king, telling her that on the morrow he will



MAX ALVARY AS LOHENGRIN.



THE ARRIVAL OF LOHENGRIN.

answer her questions. Elsa is led away, overwhelmed with terror and grief.

The story is resumed the next morning at the riverside, just where it began. The king and the nobles are preparing to start for the war and they only await the appearance of their leader, Lohengrin. To the surprise of all the dead body of Frederick is brought in. Elsa and her maids appear and Lohengrin follows them. The men urge him to place himself at the head of the army. To their surprise he refuses. He declares that Frederick broke in upon

him in the night and asks the king if he did not do right thus to defend his bridal chamber. He says that Elsa, who had promised not to ask his name, doubted him and his love. He will now tell her all she wished to know, and he then reveals that he is a knight of the Holy Grail, a son of Parcival, and Lohengrin by name. He says it was his duty as a knight that led him to come to Elsa's defense. He asks her why she destroyed their happiness by doubts. Crushed and heart-broken she begs his forgiveness. The swan returns



ORTRUD KNEELING BEFORE ELSA.

with the boat. It is a sign that he is lost to her forever.

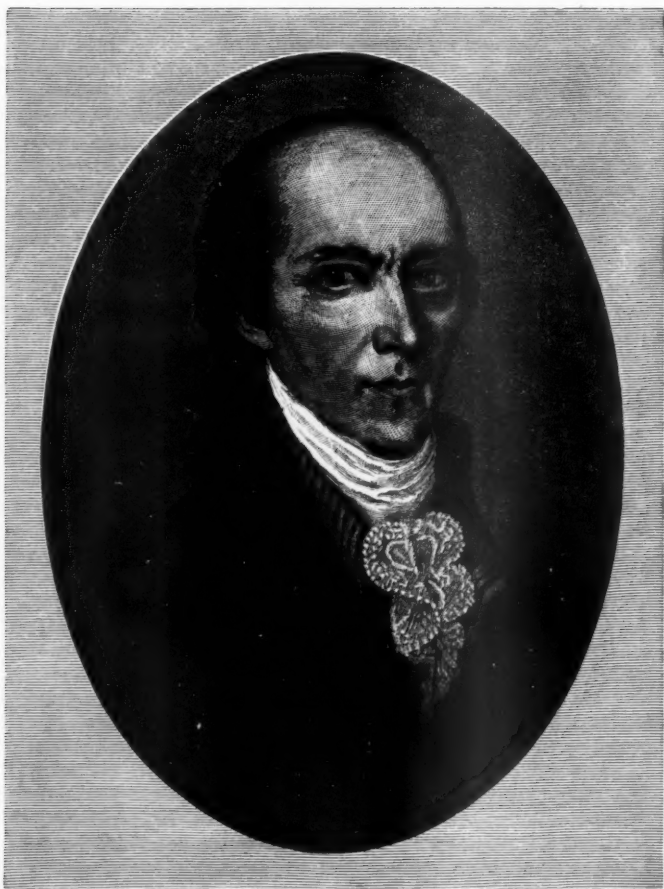
Once more Ortrud draws near and taunts Elsa with her love for a sorcerer. She declares that with magic arts she bewitched the swan and that had Lohengrin remained Elsa might have found her lost brother. Lohengrin prays for guidance in this new difficulty and suddenly there is a miracle. The swan disappears in the river and Lohengrin lifts from the water the lost child and places him in Elsa's arms. Elsa is vindicated and Ortrud crushed with

defeat, but the wedded lovers are parted forever, as Lohengrin sails away never to return.

This is the story round which the composer has woven the fine fabric of his music. Story and music are one. To hear one is to see the other, so closely are they wedded. Even to read the story is to suggest the music and revive its memory when once it has been heard. To see and hear it adequately performed is to enjoy the highest artistic experience to be found in any art.

ORIGIN OF THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.*

BY CHARLES M. HARVEY.



By permission of D. Appleton & Co.

WILLIAM MACLAY, THE ORIGINAL DEMOCRAT.

THE precise date of the Democratic party's birth cannot be set forth as definitely as can that of the younger organizations, for at the time of its advent the convention system for choosing presidential candidates had not been devised, and the congressional caucus, which usually selected them from 1800 to 1824, had

not yet come into being. The first presidential canvass which it participated in was that of 1796, and this was the earliest canvass in which there was any contest for president. There was no struggle for president in 1789 and 1792. In each of those years Washington received one of the two votes which each presidential elector cast, and everybody knew he would, while the electors divided their second votes among

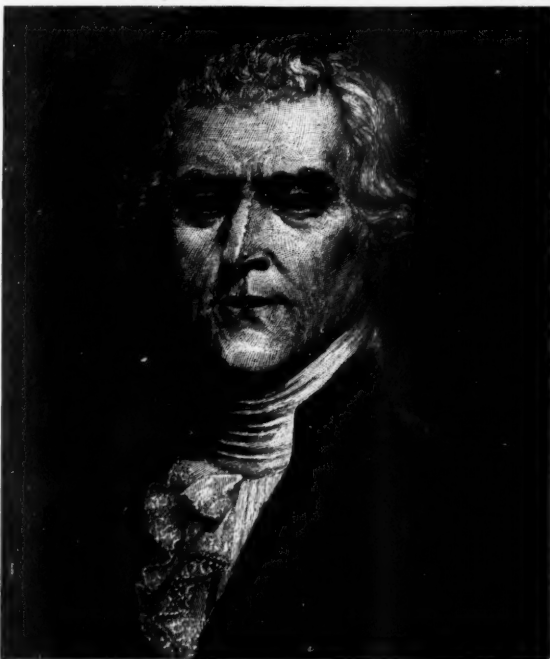
* For article on the "Origin of the Republican Party" see THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1897.

many aspirants, John Adams in the first of these years receiving more votes than any other person and in the second year receiving more than all the others combined, thus each time being chosen vice-president. Not till 1804 were the electors required to indicate whom they wanted for president and whom for vice-president, until that time the person having the highest number of votes, if a majority, receiving the higher office and the one standing next to him receiving the lower post. The only contest that took place in 1789 and 1792, therefore, was for vice-president, and party lines were not closely drawn in either year. Before 1796, however, the Democratic party came into existence. Of course the name Democracy was not applied to it at that time. Then and for about a third of a century afterward it was known as the Republican party.

The important date-marks in the record of the origin of the Democratic party are these: 1791, in which year occurred the controversy between Jefferson and Hamilton on the question of the creation of a national bank, which furnished the practical impulse toward the founding of the new party by Jefferson, and also the year in which Philip Freneau's *National Gazette*, the new party's organ, was established; 1792, when the name of the party was formally applied and the party's purpose defined; 1793, when, in the contest between the two elements of the American people over President Washington's neutrality proclamation in the war between England and France, the line of division between the two parties was formally drawn, the Federalists favoring England and the Republicans France; 1795, in which the Republican line was further extended and the party's purpose more practically defined in its assault on the Jay treaty, which a Federalist administra-

tion negotiated and the Federalist party championed; and 1796, in which year the party made its first rally in a presidential canvass, and, in the cant of a later time, "perfected its national organization."

For two reasons the bank controversy of 1791 has a permanent historic importance: It produced the secession from the Federalists which resulted in the creation of the Republican (Democratic) party, and it revealed the line on which the great parties of that day and of the future in the United States were to divide. The Bank Bill, which was part of Hamilton's elaborate scheme to restore the public credit, provided for the establishment for twenty years of an institution to be called the United States Bank, with a capital of \$10,000,000, \$2,000,000 of which was to be subscribed by the government. It went through the Senate in January, 1791, without serious opposition, but in the House it was fiercely assailed on the ground that it would be unconstitutional and inexpedient. One of the strongest opponents of the bill in the House was Madison, who broke with his old co-worker



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Hamilton permanently on this question. The act passed the House, however, and it was signed February 25, 1791.

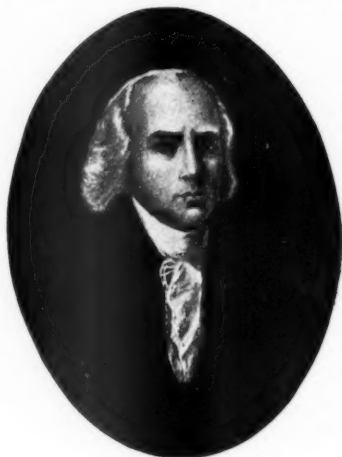
Being strongly urged to veto the bill, President Washington, before signing it, asked the written opinions of his cabinet upon it. Secretary of State Jefferson and Attorney-General Randolph opposed the bank and Secretary of the Treasury Hamilton and Secretary of War Knox favored it. Jefferson's and Hamilton's opinions related chiefly to the constitutional aspect of the matter, and touched the fundamental question of the powers of Congress under the organic law. Jefferson argued for a strict, rigid, and literal interpretation of the Constitution, and Hamilton for a broad and liberal construction of that charter.

Many great issues—slavery, the tariff, internal improvements at national expense, the greenback and national banking schemes of the War of Secession days, and other questions of national concern—have come to the front since the controversy in 1791, in the House of Representatives and in the cabinet, on the first United States Bank, but all have touched this question of constitutional interpretation. In one aspect or another all of these issues have interrogated the people thus: Shall the grant of authority given to Congress by Article 1, Section 8 of the organic law be construed according to what is seen to be the letter, or, on the other hand, in what may be conceived to be the spirit? Jefferson advocated the former view and Hamilton the latter.

Hamilton thus brought into being the doctrine of the "implied powers," which Lodge, in his life of Hamilton, well says is "the most formidable weapon in the armory of the Constitution." Sanctioned by a long line of decisions by the courts, it has led unavoidably to an indefinite expansion of the sphere of federal legislation. The Jeffersonian ground, the strict constructionist theory, which seeks to make the powers of the states relatively large and those of the federal government relatively small, lies at the basis of the original Republican and the Democratic doctrine. The Hamiltonian view, the broad constructionist theory, which

limits the authority of the states and enlarges that of the nation, has been the governing principle in the Federalist, the National Republican, the Whig, and the present Republican party's creed.

The contest on the bank question in February, 1791, which started the Republican party, with Jefferson as its directing



JAMES MADISON.

spirit and Madison as its leading spokesman in Congress, had for its sequel the establishment in Philadelphia, then the seat of government, of the *National Gazette*, which was the new party's organ. That paper's first number was issued October 15, 1791, and its last bore the date of October 13, 1793. Its editor during the two years of its existence was Philip Freneau.

The *National Gazette* attacked Washington's administration, which was dominated by Hamilton, with a ferocity and malignity characteristic of the utterances of the press and politicians of both parties at that time toward their political opponents and far transcending in bitterness and vindictiveness the most violent language used in the partisan controversies of the present day. The Federalists charged that most of these attacks on the administration were either written or "inspired" by Jefferson, who was part of the administration. Freneau in 1792 made affidavit that Jefferson had no connection with the paper, but years after-

ward he retracted this, and said that Jefferson wrote or dictated the most abusive of the articles.

Viewing the matter dispassionately a century after the event there is seen to be some ground for the accusation. One of Jefferson's published letters shows that two weeks after the rupture in the cabinet between him and Hamilton in February, 1791, on the bank question, Jefferson offered Freneau the post of translating clerk in the State Department at a nominal salary, \$250 a year. In a letter to his son-in-law, May 15 of that year, Jefferson said he tried to persuade Freneau to furnish a "Whig vehicle of intelligence" to combat Fenno's *United States Gazette*, which supported the Federalists, and which Jefferson said was a "paper of pure Toryism," but that the project failed. The project was not given up, however. On August 16 Freneau got his position as translating clerk under Jefferson. October 15 his paper appeared. October 1, 1793, Freneau resigned the post of translating clerk. Twelve days later his paper was discontinued, and two months afterward Jefferson left the cabinet.

A distinctive name for the new party was still lacking, but this was soon provided.

The Republican party, who wish to preserve the government in its present form, are fewer in number than the Federalists. They are fewer when joined by the two, three, or half a dozen Anti-Federalists, who, though they dare not avow it, are still opposed to any general government, but, being less so to a republican than to a monarchial one, they naturally join those whom they think to be pursuing the lesser evil.

This is an extract from a letter written by Secretary Jefferson to President Washington, May 23, 1792, telling of the danger to free institutions which he imagined lurked in Hamilton's nationalizing policy, which was carried out by the Federalist party. Jefferson, in this utterance, disavowed any kinship with the Anti-Federalists, and, by calling his own side Republicans, stigmatized, by implication, the Federalists as monarchists. The name Republican party was here for the first time applied officially, so to speak, to the opponents of the Federalist organization.

G—Feb.

The name Republican was the one which Jefferson selected for his party. The excesses and follies of the French extremists during the Reign of Terror had made the designation Democracy distasteful to him. However, the radical element of his party called themselves Democrats from the beginning. That name began to be used interchangeably with Republican before Madison's service in the presidency ended, and soon after Jackson entered the presidency in 1829 the term Democratic displaced that of Republican, and has remained the party designation ever since.

A claim is made by Mr. Edgar S. Maclay, who edited the "Journal of William Maclay," which was published in 1890, that the latter, and not Jefferson, was the "true founder of the Democratic party." William Maclay was one of Pennsylvania's senators in the First Congress, that of 1789-91, and his diary of the proceedings in the Senate in those two years is the fullest account of the debates of that body that has come down to us, while his pen portraits of his colleagues and of Washington and the members of his cabinet are among the most vivid and piquant which we have. Maclay was an ardent opponent of pomp and ceremonialism in social and political affairs. He was the leader in the opposition to the granting of titles to the president and vice-president, and he expressed a vigorous dislike to the etiquette established by Washington in his intercourse with Congress and at his receptions. Funding, assumption, the United States Bank, and the other distinctively Federalist measures he violently assailed. The enactment of these measures, the general evidences of what he supposed to be corruption, and the drift of the Federalist party—the party of Washington, Adams, Hamilton, the Pinckneys, Gouverneur Morris, and Rufus King—to what he imagined to be monarchy, leads him into many extravagances of speech and causes him to despair of the republic, as is seen in the following extract from his diary:

My mind revolts in many instances against the Constitution of the United States. Indeed, I am

afraid it will turn out the vilest of all traps that ever were set to ensnare the freedom of an unsuspecting people.

All this sounds absurd now, yet one hundred years ago many good men had grave forebodings regarding the success of the new experiment in self-government. Certainly Maclay will never be accepted as the founder of the Democratic party, but undoubtedly he was the original Democrat.

It has been said here that the Democratic party (the Jeffersonian Republican party of 1791-1829 and the same party under its Democratic name since the latter year) is a strict constructionist organization, and that its opponents (the Federalist party of 1789-1817, the National Republican of 1825-34, the Whig of 1834-54, and the present Republican party, which was born in the last-named year), have been broad constructionist parties. The terms broad and strict construction, it should be understood, however, are merely relative. That which passed for strict construction in Cleveland's days in the presidency would have been called broad construction in the early part of Jefferson's service. The line of separation between the two great partisan schools, based on the interpretation which each gives to clauses 1 and 18 of Section 8 of Article 1 of the Constitution, has never been entirely obliterated, but, through the exigencies of politics and the frequent shifting of party ground by each side, the line sometimes has faded close to the vanishing point. Party ground has shifted because each side, the strict constructionist as

well as the broad, has been disposed to exercise large powers by the government when in control of the government, while each side has contended for limited powers for the government when it was on the outside.

For example, a large element of the broad constructionist Federalist party opposed, when out of power, the creation of the second United States Bank in 1816, which was based on the same principle as Hamilton's bank, which the Federalists established while in power in 1791. The strict constructionist Jeffersonian party reversed itself in the same way by creating the bank of 1816, and the bill for that bank was signed by the man who led the opposition in Congress to the earlier bank, James Madison. The broad constructionist Republican party in 1876-77 refused, for partisan reasons, to allow Congress to "go behind the returns" of the state returning boards in the Hayes-Tilden contest, and took the strict constructionist state rights side for that exigency, and the strict constructionist Democracy similarly changed its base by demanding larger powers for Congress and limited powers for the states. In theory the Democracy has been and is a state rights party. When President Jackson, however, in 1833 extirpated nullification, and when President Cleveland in 1894 suppressed the Debs insurrection in Chicago, in each instance against the protest of the government of the state directly concerned, the state rights party made state pretensions yield to national necessities.

A STORY OF THE SEA.

BY PERCIE W. HART.

SABLE ISLAND is known to sailormen as the "ditty-box of Davy Jones' locker." This simile conveys more to the marine mind than a landsman can well conjecture. The island is usually distant about ninety miles southeast from the Cape of Canso on the Nova Scotian coast, and at the present time of writing is some twenty-

five miles in length by one in breadth. These qualitatives are written advisedly, for this weird waif of the ocean changes both position and shape with every storm, and has increased by ten miles of area or contracted in the same ratio during a single season. It is a mammoth heap of sand, whirled about in the eddies of the Gulf

Stream, having some few sparse patches of grass scattered here and there, but without a single tree or even shrub to hide its nakedness. Lying almost directly in the path of navigation between the Old and New Worlds, it has caught high-decked caravels and modern steel steamships alike into its cruel embrace, and the few survivors who have managed to scramble out of reach of the hungry waves never lacked driftwood or wreckage. But Sable Island has a hundred heart-moving tales, aside from its mighty volume of ship disaster, and the simplest one of all is that which I have here written down.

Just eight years short of three centuries ago a small armed vessel known colloquially as a "barcalonga" came sailing into the narrow-mouthed bay upon the south-eastern side of the island, and, after lowering sail, dropped her kedge anchor upon its shallow bottom. A few rods back from the shore, and fully concealed from the view of those on shipboard by one of the many wavelike ranges of sand-hills, lay two raggedly clad and wild-eyed human beings, watching the movements of the vessel with pitiful eagerness visible in every feature. One of these twain was a mere stripling of perhaps but little over a score of years, while the other, with his extravagantly long white beard and hairless head, looked a very patriarch.

"How now, good Jacques?" quoth the youngster, with a gesture of impatience. "Art ready to greet these mariners? Methinks hast had ample time to satisfy thine odd scruples in regard to their intent. An old sailorman should certainly show more joy at meeting his own tradesmen than any others, and yet here you lie concealed, and watch them with moving lips and unwinking eyes, as if they were the very genii of the deep."

"Tarry but a few moments' space longer before discovering thyself irrevocably unto them, boy Julian," replied the ancient, without for one instant removing his rapt gaze from the barcalonga. "And surely thou wilt not be hasty, when thy rashness may imperil others as well as thyself."

"Again and yet again thou hast repeated this vague answer to my questioning," retorted the boy hotly; "an 'twere not that thou hast been like unto an elder brother to me in these past years of misery I would long since have rushed down upon the beach and hailed this gay ship to take me aboard and bear me away to lands where trees grow and there is grain to be made into bread. Faugh!" he ejaculated discontentedly, "I've grown so wearied of birds' eggs and cranberries and cranberries and birds' eggs that I fain would go back to the galleys and taste the black broth that I once despised."

"Julian, lad," spake the ancient, moving slightly to one side and placing his big caloused palm upon the young man's shoulder in a paternal manner, "seven times has the winter's snow come and gone since the Marquis de la Roche landed us upon this barren spot, promising that he would return within a few weeks' time with seeds and settlers from the mainland. Forty of us then there were, convicts all from the galleys of France, strong and lusty from toiling at the oars, and fearing nothing but the lash of our masters. If this ship had come but six years ago—aye or even five—it would have gone hard but what we should have got away by hook or by crook from this miserable spot. But look ye! Here is but a scant dozen of us left alive, and you and I—an old, decrepit man and a young, half-starved boy—the only ones able to do much more than drag aweary bodies slowly along the beach. Is this, think you, a time to fight for a ship or for freedom?"

"Let them take us back to the dungeons then," cried the lad passionately. "No cell could be worse than this forsaken sand island. Yet mark these men's bravery," pointing, as he uttered the words, at the deck of the ship. "See the rich apparel of every color, the flash of jewels, and the gleam of polished metal. These seem to me most like to be a party of noblemen put forth upon a summer's voyage for pure wantonness. They would be just the ones to feed us well and return us safely to our native

land. I see nothing wherein to make them out your bloodthirsty buccaneers."

"Nay, nay," replied Jacques, shaking his head dubiously. "Thou'lt find all manner of men among those who sail the deep seas, and as much mixed company in cabins as under palace roofs; but whereas on shore the rogues are apt to dress in shoddy and the true gentlemen in silks and velvet, at sea you'll generally find it the other way."

"Yet would it not be better to throw ourselves upon their mercy than remain here perhaps for the rest of our natural lives?"

"And what mercy dost think we would command from men who rob honest ships and send every soul on board to feed the fishes? Isn't it better to live on eggs a little while longer than to be meat for the birds ourselves? But look—and still keep thy head low: they are launching the pinnace and making ready to come ashore. Let us lie concealed even yet for some little season. As long as they are on the island it will always be possible for us to make ourselves known unto them."

Even as he spoke the last few words a number of men crowded into the small boat, and with a few strokes of the oars she grounded upon the beach. Removing several packages from her thwarts, including an iron-bound box with handles at the sides and several big earthenware jugs, the party proceeded leisurely inland, passing within a stone's throw of the hiding-place wherein the convict castaways lay concealed.

There were just nineteen in the number, according to the after statements of both Jacques and Julian; and even in the haziness of the oncoming twilight the latter could see that they were men of divers climes and conditions. One of the pair that carried the iron-bound chest (which seemed to be abnormally heavy) was a yellow-haired man of gigantic stature, who uttered an almost continuous volley of oaths in the sweetly sibilant accents of the Scottish Highlands, while his co-worker and grumbler wore the drooping mustachio and replied in the stately vituperations of the hidalgo of Spain. Equally diverse in type of personality, albeit alike in noisy wrangle

and dispute, were the rest of the miniature caravan.

They moved along without any particular semblance of order for about half a mile inland, until they reached a narrow, low-lying hollow among the sand-hills, in which, after a considerable amount of discussion, they halted and laid down their several burdens.

By the time the two refugees were able to get in a position from which they could watch the movements of the party without discovering their own identity, the aforesaid Scotchman and Spaniard had scraped a shallow hole in the sand, into which the heavy box was lowered. Scarcely had the former relaxed his grip upon the handle, when both Jacques and Julian grew sick with horror at the sight of the olive-skinned man brandishing a long, lean knife, which he almost instantly sheathed to the hilt in the back of the half-kneeling giant. With a cry that sent the wild gulls soaring aloft, the Scot fell face downward upon the chest of treasure, to gain which he had undoubtedly shared in the shedding of peaceful blood.

The two hidden ones waited, in the expectation of seeing summary vengeance executed upon the murderer; but to their dismay no movement was made to that end. On the contrary, several of the onlookers assisted the Spaniard in scooping up sand with their hands and throwing it into the hole, until the still warm body and treasure-chest alike had vanished, and nothing remained but a smooth surface of sand.

The sight of this cold-blooded killing had its due effect upon the two convicts. Instead of making themselves known to these ruffians they thought only of how best to keep from their sight; and their hearts sunk within them when they remembered that their rude huts upon the far eastern end of the island could readily be discerned from any one of the higher sand hillocks. That some of the buccaneers would undoubtedly note them upon the morrow, and that a visit to them would follow, seemed altogether certain. To get back to their weaker comrades and inform them of the impending danger, so that all might desert

their rude habitations and leave the buccaneers to imagine the island completely tenantless, became at once their prime object.

Scarcely noting that the pirates had thrown themselves down in various easy positions upon the sand beneath which they had just buried both victim and booty, and that the jugs of spirits were passing from hand to hand, to the accompaniment of hoarsely crooned ribald songs and noisy merriment, the twain cautiously crawled on hands and knees until they had placed a mile or more between themselves and the roisterers. After resting for a few moments while waiting for the gathering darkness to prevent all possibility of their being sighted as they traveled across the broad expanse, they rose to their feet and commenced their long tramp toward that part of the island which they designated by the name of "*Les Jardins Français*" (the French Gardens), as indeed it is called up to the present day.

Meanwhile the wind came in ever stronger gusts, and the always roaring surf was growing perceptibly noisier. The two convicts, sadly weakened by privation and, suffering, not to speak of the scene through which they had just passed, could with difficulty manage to drag their feet over the ground. Mile after mile, however, was gradually placed behind them; and although it seemed at times as if they must give up the struggle and lie down, they finally reached their destination. Even as they reeled within the slight shelter of their miserable hovels the storm broke in all its fury. Of all the gales that these castaways had experienced during their long sojourn upon the island, this was by far the worst. The wind blew with all the force of a tropic hurricane, and in spite of their distance from the sea the salt spray beat down upon them like rain.

Although impressed with the gravity of the impending danger, the little band could not make up their minds to desert the flimsy shelter and brave the inclemency of the elements. "It might be just as well to wait for morning," counseled Jacques at

length; "even buccaneers would scarcely stir abroad upon such a night." But the terror of what the ensuing day might bring forth filled their hearts; and all these men, who had unfalteringly committed the most revolting of crimes in their native land, fairly quaked at each sound made by the ill-fastened boards in their dwellings, as the cruel force of the wind beat down upon them.

When daylight drew near, the little band gathered together their scanty belongings, and after removing every vestige of late occupancy from the buildings took their departure toward the extreme end of the island. There, huddling under the poor shelter of the sand-hills, and but meagerly supplied with sea-gulls' eggs, they waited the possibility of discovery in fear and trembling. They lay thus hidden for three days and three nights.

Finding the suspense totally unbearable, and half crazed by their forced inaction, old Jacques and young Julian finally volunteered to go upon a reconnoitering expedition. After solemnly vowing that in the event of capture torture itself should not cause them to reveal the presence of their companions, they started forth.

The reason that made their venture seem particularly hazardous lay in the fact that one of their convict comrades, gifted with unusually keen sight, declared that he could discern the top of the stubby mast of the *barcalonga* over the distant sand-hills. If this were actually the case, it of course showed that the buccaneers had not left the vicinity, and that mayhap they were even then strolling in bands around the island. In this latter event capture was almost certain, for the rolling dunes were utterly inadequate for hiding purposes if the fugitives were once caught sight of.

The twain made but slow progress, as they halted every few moments in order to listen for any sound of voices coming in their direction; and it was not till a full hour after nightfall that they reached the shore of the little bay. To their consternation and surprise they found the pinnace almost afloat with the high tide, looking seemingly just

as the pirates had left her when they were there three days before; and there, sure enough, dimly outlined against the dark gray sky, was the trim little ship, without a sign of life perceptible aboard of her.

"The buccaneers must be still continuing their wild orgies inland, unmindful alike of day or night," commented old Jacques, after they had gazed some few moments in silence.

"What is to prevent our taking the pin-nace and boarding the vessel, leaving you in possession while I swim ashore and hasten back to bring the rest of the company up? And then, heigho, for the open sea, leaving the pirates to enjoy our past pleasures!" cried Julian, with all the excitability of youth.

"But what if there be a guard, armed and all, aboard the vessel?" remonstrated Jacques, with all the corresponding hesitancy of age.

"Try it," was the young man's only response.

"And the others—could they make the journey in time?"

"Try it."

But still, while Jacques was apparently hesitating vocally, he made no delay in helping the younger man ease the light boat off the beach and paddle her noiselessly out to the anchored vessel. Once on board, they found their precaution unnecessary, for the only living thing was a diminutive pet monkey. This little animal showed that it was feeling the pangs of starvation by the eagerness with which it snatched some raisins proffered from the hand of Julian.

After gaining new life and vigor from the almost forgotten varieties of food and drink that they found upon the vessel, the twain set about carrying out the remainder of Julian's bold plan. Jacques brought up a number of swords and pikes from below, loaded both of the clumsy culverins that stood upon the barcalonga's deck, and, with the pinnace securely fastened on the off-shore side of the vessel, awaited any possible attack with equanimity.

To Julian fell the task of swimming ashore and making his way in the darkness

over the yielding sands to where their comrades awaited them in fear and trembling. Even the veteran lighthousemen of to-day would hesitate before attempting the night journey of the young French convict. The island sands are terrible in their shiftings, and yielding morasses capable of swallowing a man in a single second dot the plain. But safely he went, and safely—though very slowly—came the little haggard band (their brains whirling and their pains all gone at the prospect of a speedy deliverance from the hated island) back with him. It was broad daylight when they clambered up on deck from the boat and eagerly commenced to unloose the sail preparatory to hoisting it. Scarce was this work well commenced when one gazed steadily to seaward for a brief instant, and then threw himself down upon his face, shrieking aloud:

"This cursed island is the devil's very own! The bay is now but a lake! Look, ye who believe me not!"

With one accord they turned toward the erstwhile mouth of the little bay, to find themselves completely surrounded by rolling sand-dunes. With blanched faces and sickening hearts they realized that the recent storm had changed the island's shape, as had happened more than once before during their own comparatively short residence upon it, and that the former bay was now merely a shore-bound lake, inside which the barcalonga lay hopelessly imprisoned.

For upwards of a week they remained in undisputed possession of the ship, gaining strength and valor by reason of the nourishing food from which they had been so long debarred. And as in well-armed bands they examined the whole broad surface of the island and found no trace of the buccaneers, the truth came slowly home to them. The carousing pirates had been caught by the sand-laden winds in their drunken stupor and had slowly but surely been buried alive, along with their gold and their murdered comrade. A mountain of sand now stood where before had been a deep valley, and the retribution of Heaven was complete.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS.

BY MARY E. GREEN, M. D.

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

Where is there any condition higher than the ordering of the house?—*Goethe*.

WHEN the various congresses of the Columbian Exposition were organized, embracing, as they did, religion, sociology, philanthropy, art, education, kindergarten, woman suffrage, psychical research, and a number of other subjects, women perceived that there was room in none of them for any consideration of the domestic problem. It was out of a great need that the Congress of Household Economics was evolved. To Mrs. Potter Palmer, Mrs. Charles Henrotin, Mrs. John Wilkinson, and Mr. Bonney the women of America owe a debt of gratitude. The National Household Economic Association is one of the organizations that have merged into a corporate association since the Columbian Exposition.

What is household economics? one is often asked. Why do we need this science more to-day than in the generation of our ancestors? We have always needed the help that just this science will bring to homes and women, but never until to-day have women been keenly alive to their needs. In brief, household economics is the science of household work so systematized, simplified, and ordered as to insure economy, comfort, and health within the home.

While the subject is wide-reaching, the physical features of the home must be first considered: its location, construction, and sanitation; the best and most economical methods of heating, lighting, ventilating. Not less to be considered, since man has a soul as well as a body, is artistic excellence in the furnishing. It is well to remember that the most artistic furnishings may be ideally simple and sanitary.

The study of household economics next

includes the individual in his relation to the home; personal hygiene, the care of the body in regard to labor and rest, cleanliness, warmth, proper clothing, and diet, the latter including the study of foods from both the nutritive and economic points of view. The science of cookery requires careful study because our traditional methods are so often opposed to science. Lastly, we must study the relation of the child to the home, adapting all methods that shall conduce to a rounded, wholesome development, physical, mental, and moral. The mother has immense resources in this line in the mass of literature already published upon child study and the philosophy of the kindergarten. Last and most dreaded task of all, we must study this problem of domestic service.

The home has not made the progress that we see in every other direction. Homes are still unsanitary, food is still wasted, our cooking has long been credited with creating a nation of dyspeptics, and sewage is often so illy disposed as to breed disease. We claim to possess a more advanced civilization than at the beginning of the century, when so many of the industrial trades were carried on in the home. Yet the domestic problem is more intricate than ever. In the days of primitive simplicity there were, in nearly all homes, large families of children. In the home was carried on the carding of the wool, spinning, weaving, dyeing, and all of the knitting and sewing. Fruit was dried and preserved, meat was cured, soap and candles, bread and pastry, butter and cheese, all were home products. How busy were the women of those days! And yet it is only the modern woman, who has at her command the loom and knitting machine of the factory, the great packing houses, bakeries, and dairies, the butcher, the baker,

the candlestick-maker, all waiting to serve her, who complains of lack of time. This is an era of small and in too many cases childless families, and to-day the housewife's greatest trial is this domestic service problem, which she is unable to solve. For this reason is it that so many families drift into boarding-houses or become wrecked in a measure through the little annoyances of daily life.

The daughter no longer shares domestic labor, as formerly, with her mother. The household work is done (after a fashion) by servants. So she enters school with her brothers and later in life becomes their competitor in every occupation open to men. When this girl marries, as it is more than probable that she will do, she is wholly unfitted to enter a home as administrator; and as a result she sacrifices both her strength and nervous energy, her husband's patience and sometimes his regard, and the health and comfort of her children. I am reminded of one beautiful girl whose sole preparation for housekeeping was a course of cooking lessons. After a trial of a few months both husband and wife moved into a boarding-house. The wife knew nothing of the principles of cookery, nothing of the science of marketing, nothing of the relation of food to the needs of the system, nothing of the business sense and tact needed to manage a home. Is there any other occupation on earth into which people enter for a term of service without a particle of preliminary training? The years are strewn with the heartaches, wrecked health, and wasted energies of just such women.

It is evident, therefore, that housekeeping or home-making is a profession requiring thought and study, and one which dignifies every woman who enters it with the purpose of doing her very best possible under all circumstances. Women do not realize the advantage of making the home a place of repose to the family instead of the tempestuous resort that is often seen, wherein the mismanagement is attended to by a nervous, incapable wife or by ignorant domestics.

How may women gain this much-needed

knowledge? The best means of all is individual study, and help is at the hand of any earnest woman in these days of teachers and books. Nothing can take the place of that in any science. Next to that the woman's club may be made an effective agent. I once heard a woman boast of belonging to twenty-one clubs. She knew Emerson and Browning, Ibsen and Tolstoi, yet to save her life she could not have told you why she kneaded her bread instead of treating it like a soda biscuit or why the slices of toast were brown upon the surface instead of white. She did not know the simplest principles of cooking, of sanitation, of economy in buying household supplies, and yet she was a home-maker. If every woman's club in America were to devote the next two years to the study of household economics I believe the domestic problem would soon be solved.

The granges and associations of women in rural districts should appropriate certain days for this study upon the occasion of every county and state fair. The farmers' institutes which are held in nearly all of our states might profitably set aside a day for household economics, a day in which the women of the agricultural districts might meet for conference, with the advantage of lectures or classes in this subject by those who understand the science. Clubs for the study of the home and its keeping may be formed among the girls who fill our business offices, shops, factories, and stores. Household work is already a feature of the training in reformatory and industrial schools in which women and girls are detained, but except in rare cases it is incomplete and unscientific.

Agricultural colleges should inaugurate a department of household science for the benefit of the women of the state, as has already been done in Kansas and in Michigan. No class of women is so annoyed by lack of sanitary conveniences and none is so enslaved by the folly of excessive cake-baking and pastry-making as the wives of farmers.

Above all, the science of housekeeping should be taught in our public schools. It

is a truism in education that if we would accomplish something permanent we must begin with the children. If household economics were taught in the public schools it would rise to the dignity of the other school studies and false pride would no longer deter intelligent and refined girls from entering domestic service. Competent and intelligent domestics could then be secured to our homes; but better than all would be the comfort in store for the future homes which these girls will some day enter as mistresses. On the other hand, the mothers of the employed classes would be much more relieved of anxiety for their daughters when they saw them enter sheltered and refined homes as domestics than is the case at present when they enter the un-

healthful atmosphere (both morally and physically) of factory or shop.

It is a hopeful sign that the Chautauqua Assemblies of many of our states are now holding yearly conferences on this and kindred subjects. It is wholly probable that a two days' session of the National Household Economic Association will be held during the Tennessee Exposition.

Thus the heaven is at work. "To the individual the condition of household economics means the health and happiness of life. Whether we live or die, and how we live and die, is largely determined by our household conditions. We cannot afford to have this cradle of life, the home, in an inferior or defective condition, else is the life that comes out of it malformed and defective."

I WONDER IF IN HEAVEN.

BY LOUIS H. BUCKSHORN.

I WONDER if the daffodil
Its golden glow doth safely lift
Above the blue dome's sunny rift?

I wonder if the pinky bloom
Beneath the winter's remnant gloom
Can send aloft its sweet perfume?

I wonder if the caroled note
From oriole and red-breast throat
On heaven's stillness ever broke?

And answer came:

The sunset in the parting west
Hangs low, in dream, its golden crest
On gentle evening's soothing breast.

The quiet pose of darkling air
Breathes forth a vibrant fragrance rare,
Like beds of bloom secreted there.

And twinkling stars on heaven's brink
Seem straying notes that sight must link
With song ear hears from bobolink.

THE WEDGE OF SUCCESS.

BY LILIAN WHITING.

HOW can the educated woman earn her living? It is the problem—at least *a* problem—of the day. How can the *uneducated* woman earn her living? the reader may reply, with a conviction that the conundrum propounded in this interrogation quite exceeds the other. But a little reflection may suggest a doubt. Any thoughtful survey of the industrial panorama will incline the observer to believe that the purely material and immediate gains, at the present time, are far more on the side of the women whose tastes and traditions do not debar them from the more primitive forms of service than they are for the scholarly woman who has not an over-mastering enthusiasm for some special work. When one has that, the problem of life is solved. The way to success may lie through devious and uncertain ways, through evil report and good report, through denials and defeats, but it is as assured, in final result, as the course of the sun in the heavens. A fixed, definite purpose not only leads to success; it is success.

However, to return for a moment to the outlook for the college girl who has not gone on to study for a profession: Does it differ widely from that of the man who has not chosen a profession? The girl is refined, more or less cultivated (beyond the mere fact of being educated), well-bred, attractive, perhaps even charming—a girl who would make a *beau rôle* as the daughter of a happy home. But there is no home. Perhaps the girl has not only her own future to consider, but that of a delicate and dependent mother. What can she do to earn money?

Full of that confidence which is born of ignorance—and which is still a most important factor in the problem of living—the girl and her mother seek a large city. They secure a furnished room or two and take their meals "out"—here or there, as they

can. The girl begins her search for employment. She is neatly dressed, sweet, true, and good; she is well educated, with a fair range of literary and social culture. But what can she do? She has not exactly the requirements for a public school-teacher, although she is probably more liberally educated than many who succeed admirably as teachers in the public schools. Moreover, there is no probability of her securing a place in them if she tried. She speaks and reads two or three languages, it may be, and very likely she is sufficiently musical to play and sing in a manner to give pleasure to her family and friends. But all this is nothing from the point of view of the professional market. To teach the languages requires some gift beyond that of even a good college acquaintance with them, and the cities are full of teachers of languages besides the schools that make them the specialty. Our heroine is not a writer in the sense of the special gift; she has doubtless contributed sketch and verse to her college paper which she exhibits with some pride, but in the literary or journalistic market such efforts are totally valueless.

The application of the law of exclusion settles some points. Here is an engaging young college woman who cannot teach in the public schools or give special tuition in music or languages. Nor can she be a journalist or an author; she cannot sew, she sees no fitting opportunities as a saleswoman; she has not the special exact training required for a cashier or a bookkeeper, though more than likely she has far greater range of general culture than many experts in these lines; she cannot compete with the experienced typewriter; factory and domestic service are not for her, and the question as to what she can do still lacks solution.

There are three other kinds of work that might especially commend themselves to the

college non-professional woman: that of the telephonic services, of assistants in public libraries, and of proof-readers in book publishing houses. But curiously the pay here is very disproportionate to the requirements. A woman proof-reader—and it requires a good degree of scholarship to be an expert proof-reader—receives from six to ten dollars a week and her hours are from eight to five, six days in the week. An assistant in a library receives about the same; while women in the employ of the telephonic service often work for from five to eight dollars a week, the hours being from eight till six each day. A college girl sometimes fixes her mind on being a private secretary to an author, a clergyman, or a business man. But to the author, even were he able to employ one, which he usually is not, she cannot be of much real use, for writing is not a work that can be relegated to another, and if copying is desired the typewriter is preferred. The minister cannot, as a rule, give regular and continuous employment, and the untried woman, ignorant of business, cannot be an assistant of value to a business man. What, then, can she do? Is the field hopeless? By no means. It is just here that there comes in that salient truth which we may call the gospel of the entering wedge.

For really it does not make the slightest difference in the world, so far as ultimate success goes, as to where one begins. Success is in the individual, not in the circumstances. It consists solely in the insight, or the instinct, as it sometimes is, of knowing how to put in the entering wedge. If the girl, eager to advance, can simply secure any one round of the ladder on which to stand—a mere foothold—she has then every conceivable opportunity. The rest lies with herself. It is the inner purpose, not the outer conveniences, that control destiny. No one "finds" places; a place must be made.

For instance: recently a young woman in a large city who had long been trying to secure a place as typewriter found one in the mayor's office of a neighboring town. The salary was but ten dollars a week and

board cost her six dollars. The surplus was not large, it is true; still four dollars a week on the plus side is better than so much on the minus side, as it must be to one running in debt. Aside from this, however, here comes in the gospel of the entering wedge. There are both a visible and invisible side to every undertaking. The latter is the more determining. The girl who is doing her work—any work—faithfully, who is paying her expenses and something more, who, in that peace of mind which financial solvency gives her (for solvency or bankruptcy may be just as satisfactory, or just as torturing, on a small scale as on a large one)—the girl who has simply conquered standing-ground on the visible and material side may now proceed to build up her success on the invisible—which is the more real side.

To gain the respect and the confidence of the employer is often a most potent and permanent factor in success. In the instance cited it would have been one of great value. There was no opportunity for preferment in that specific place, but the mayor was a man of a wide range of acquaintance and influence, one whose recommendation would carry weight in favor of securing elsewhere a place more lucrative and satisfactory. And, too, a margin of leisure with one's self, on a basis that is at least paying expenses, is a needed prelude to entering on a wider class of work. In this case the girl did not see the opportunity; she only saw four dollars a week, and decided it was not worth the earning. So she left this foothold, instead of entering her wedge of faith, of energy, of conviction, and returned to the city, there again to engage in the struggle.

A young woman in journalistic work once remarked to me that she did not try to do very good work, as the paper that employed her "didn't pay much." Ah, but one can far better afford to have his work exceed his pay than to have his pay exceed his work. Let one do a week's work worth fifty dollars for ten, and he is on the road to success; let him receive fifty dollars a week for work worth only ten, and he is on the road

to failure. Good work cuts its own channel and eventually controls its rate of compensation. Poor work, no matter how well salaried, cannot long sustain itself. One who always gives of his best, whether well paid or ill paid, will get on, for he is entering and driving in his wedge; he is in accord with that divine law expressed by Emerson in the injunction, "Put God and the universe in your debt."

Character is an enormous factor in success. The personal impression made by the worker is almost, if not quite, an equal factor with the special gift or aptitude in the final achievement.

In the kinds of work to which reference has here been made—the telephonic, the proof-reading, the library—the girl who should begin anywhere in anything would, if she had the right combination of energy and faith, develop any kind of a clue into a leading to success.

Suppose, even, that for a time a girl makes no money at all besides that required for actual expenses. After all, she is living, and life itself is an achievement.

If she is living in a high and holy way, she is gathering forces to control the outward situation. She is in God's world; she is ready to enter on the work that he gives her to do. She is gaining experience—that priceless acquirement. She is learning the practical value, the infinite potency of prayer. Perpetual aspiration will be, in some time and way, transfigured into inspiration. Let one not undervalue the entering wedge of success.

It is the power of thought that the college woman should bring to bear on conditions—a power impossible to the less trained and cultivated woman. She must realize that thought is the greatest of the creative forces; that her intellectual discipline is a potent factor to shape and transform conditions, and that to begin anywhere she can obtain a foothold, and concentrate her energy and faith upon the project, is the way to develop the most limited conditions into a broad and noble outlook. Mere circumstances are of little consequence, for they are plastic to the potency of thought and of purpose.

INDIAN NATIVE SKILL.

BY CHIEF POKAGON.

I HAVE been prompted to write the following article on Indian native skill in consideration of the fact that the burial-places of our fathers in times past have been laid waste by the dominant race, and their graves robbed of their bones and those implements which were buried with them according to our ancient custom.

The only excuse, outside of curiosity, yet given by white men for such acts of inhumanity has been the desire that they may better understand the physical development of our forefathers and their ancient history, claiming they were able to read in the battle-axe and spear of stone and in the arrow-head and knife of flint found in our burial-places that we were savages from the beginning.

With my hands uplifted before heaven I

have always most solemnly protested against such wanton acts of inhumanity, declaring most emphatically that it is far better for their people to interest themselves in what our people now are and what they may become than to theorize on what they may have been. Therefore in this brief article I shall treat first of our splint work, which is a novelty greatly admired.

This artistic work is made of such raw material as can be gathered from the surrounding woods, and speaks volumes for the ingenuity of our race. The splints are wrought out of the black ash tree. A tree is selected from twelve to twenty inches in diameter and cut into logs from six to ten feet long. The bark is peeled off and the log thoroughly pounded all over with a wooden mallet. This process breaks

up the coarse, porous wood between the outside and the previous year's growth. The outside year's growth of wood is then peeled off in strips from two to four inches wide. The surface is again pounded as before and another year's growth stripped off. This process of pounding and stripping continues until the log is worked up into splints. These are scrubbed or shaven smooth and cut into proper widths to make such baskets as the weaver desires, varying in size from a lady's thimble to a three-bushel hamper. The splints are then colored and woven into shape by our maids and matrons. Basket after basket is made in an incredibly short space of time and packed away for sale or future use.

Indian women as a general rule have finely molded hands, and to watch the cunning fingers of those well skilled in the art is curiously interesting. They are proficient in the production of natural colors that please the eye. Those best skilled in the art educate themselves in this branch of their work by watching the rainbow in the storm and the golden clouds of sunset. In fact no true admirer of the beautiful can look through a well-arranged bazaar of these goods without feeling in his heart that they must have been dipped in the rainbow and washed in the sunshine.

Another industry in which our people are proficient is birch-bark work. Before giving an account of this, in order that it may be more fully understood and appreciated I will briefly give a description of the white birch tree, so called on account of its white, smooth bark. Originally the shores of our northern lakes and streams were fringed with it and the evergreen. The white charmingly contrasted with the green, and, mirrored in the water, was indeed beautiful; but, like the red man, this tree is vanishing from our forests.

Nature has richly provided this peculiar tree with two grades of bark: an inner gray bark, which runs with the grain of the wood, and an outer bark, the grain of which runs round the tree at right angles to the inside gray bark. During each year a layer of thin, tough, paper-like bark is found around

the outside of the inner gray bark and under the previous year's bark growth. These sheets, being formed annually, cause the bark in time to become manifold; and as the tree increases in size they must grow and expand so as to correspond with the increased diameter of the tree. During springtime the various years' growth of bark can be separated and wound off in single, double, or triple sheets, so as to suit the different kinds of work desired. For some cause these sheets of bark of different years' growth vary in hues of red, white, and gold.

Out of this white birch tree bark, hats, caps, mats, boxes, and dishes are made for domestic use, as well as miniature boats, houses, churches, and all kinds of strange devices to please and excite curiosity. In former years kettles were made of it in which red-hot stones were placed in water to boil our food. Maple sap was boiled down to sugar in like manner. Gay-colored ribbons were also made of it, with which maidens tied the knot that sealed their marriage vow. It was also used for light and fuel at our war councils and spirit dances. Large canoes were made of it that outrode the violent storms on lake and sea.

Such fancy work is interwoven with porcupine quills so stained as to appear like flowers in all their natural colors, with leaves and stems of green, or it is trimmed with sweet grass, which for years breathes forth rich perfume. Some tribes decorate their work with colored beads, but ours will not. They deem the use of the white man's manufacture an impeachment of their native skill; hence they ornament their moccasins and all their native wearing apparel with various colored porcupine quills, which gives a market value among us for an animal useless and despised by the white man.

Boat-making is an industry that reached a high degree of perfection among us long before the discovery of America. Our boats in general use were made by stretching sheets of birch-bark over a canoe frame of yellow cedar, a very light, durable, and strong timber; the boat was then turned over a slow fire, or red-hot stones, which

softened the bark, making it elastic and pliable, so it could be stretched snugly over the frame and tightly secured. When cooling off it became as tight as a drumhead about the frame. Its seams were then smeared with pine pitch within and without. Two Indians could carry such a boat of two or three tons' burden several miles overland from one stream to another.

During autumn prior to and during the first of this century a majority of the red men residing in the region of Grand Traverse Bay, Mich., would appoint a certain day and designate a place of meeting on Lake Michigan with their long birch canoes carrying from two to five persons and all the camp equipage necessary for a winter's campaign. When all was ready, at a signal given their little fleet was launched and sailed southward along the great lake two hundred miles to the mouth of Muskegon and the river Grand. From there they sailed up these beautiful streams, and scattered themselves along the shores and tributaries to hunt, trap, and fish during the winter. When springtime came, with boats loaded with sugar, honey, meats, and furs they met near the mouths of these streams, and after celebrating the feast of the dead they again set sail upon the lake for their northern home.

During the summer of 1893 there was a celebrated regatta at Harbor Springs, Mich. The circuit trail for the race was marked out twelve miles by buoys on Traverse Bay. Skilful navigators gathered there from far and near, with their yachts constructed on the most scientific plans for speed, and entered for the race; among them was one launched by an Indian from the north woods, whom they called "moss-back" and laughed at for his ignorance in bringing such a rude craft to compete with yachts of scientific make. Some in pity for him said,

Lo, the poor Indian whose untutored mind
Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind.

Others, less sympathetic, said confidently,

"He will go home a much wiser 'Injun' than he came."

Some Ottawa Indians and I took our position on the highland in plain view of the circuit trail marked out for the race. At length the signal-gun to start was fired. Slowly the little fleet moved out into the bay. We could tell the native boat on account of the smoky appearance of its sails in contrast with the others of pure white, which glistened like snow in the sunshine. As they neared the extreme buoy to the east of us, four miles away, my anxiety increased for the red man's yacht, but I could not discern which, if any, were in the advance. But as they rounded the buoy for the return trip I was startled by the words, "E-nau-bin! E-nau-bin!" (Do look! Do look!). I looked, and to my great joy saw the smoky canvas was just in the advance. But I realized that on the return trip they must beat back to the starting-point against a strong adverse wind, and I feared in my heart that the white man's superior knowledge of the art of navigation would outrival the red man's experience and native skill. To my glad surprise, however, he handled his canvas with greater ease and success than did his rivals, and continued to gain at every tack as they beat against the wind, until the race was fairly won. Then a shout long and loud went up from the mixed multitude along the shore. "Hurrah for the moss-back! The prize is his! Hurrah for the redskin! Hurrah! Hurrah!" was echoed from shore to shore around the bay.

The following year at a regatta on the same bay an Indian again won the first prize, since which time no red man has been permitted to compete for it.

I do not speak of the achievements of my race with a boastful heart, but because I most keenly realize that unless the natural ability of my people is recognized by the dominant race they cannot rise to that station for which the God of nature intends them.

THE SPEAKING AND THE SINGING VOICE.

BY FANNIE C. W. BARBOUR.

SHAKESPEARE tells us:

There's not the smallest orb which thou beholdest,
But in his motion like an angel sings.

There is some form of music to be found in all things in nature which move and have no soul; but the rarest music, the sweetest because most touching, is that of the voice of a human being, the only living thing that sings and has a soul. Any sensible suggestion, then, which assists us to bring the voice nearer in attune with nature's harmonies is welcomed with joy by the true lover of pure music.

One of the latest methods to facilitate the study of vocal music is that of "Voice Culture through Physical Training"; and this system is gaining quite a hold upon music instructors both in this country and abroad. The theory of a close connection between the singing and the speaking voice is accentuated throughout the courses, and special emphasis is placed upon the assertion that a correct pose of the body in standing and sitting, as well as the general tone of the physical condition of the student, makes all the difference in the quality of the voice.

The exponents of the above supposition declare that "to sing well is to be well," also that the singing voice differs from speech only in that it is a higher development of the same power. They tell us that if singers would only acquire the art of talking from the chest, and in the same musical key in which their voices are naturally pitched, they could use their voices freely in ordinary speech without injury. A thorough understanding of the art of speech would enable vocalists to take part in any performance in which speaking and singing are combined, for they could talk in the same key in which they have been singing without harming the voice, as Calvé does in "Carmen."

At the first lesson in the course an effort

is made to discover and to cultivate the *personal rhythm*. Few indeed are gifted with an accurate sense of rhythm, and it is far from easy to acquire. Letchetitsky says the reason Americans are so often seasick is because they and the ship are never together.

The French, who always cultivate the individuality of each person in everything they undertake, say that "in true proportion lies strength." And so these instructors endeavor to bring together any conflicting qualities existing between the speaking and the singing voice, until we can hardly distinguish the dividing line. They tell us to use a whole octave of tones when we answer *yes*, and an entire scale for the word *no*.

Mrs. Milward Adams, of Chicago, declares that we all hold our chests too high, and that the French say that the American woman has a *bourgeoise* chest. Their peasant women hold the chest high, while the *grande dame* of France has the long, low chest which is considered one mark of aristocracy in that country. Miss Emma Thursby, together with a score of other well-known music instructors, advocates the cultivation of the speaking and singing voice by a system of physical culture which teaches a proper pose of the voice as well as of the body. The well-known Dr. M. Augusta Brown Girard also declares that the power and quality of the voice depend entirely upon the tone and vigor of the whole system. The method she consequently advocates is first to pay attention to the general health of the student, with the principle that any mode of life which promotes health and strength is favorable to voice production, and anything that fatigues is detrimental.

A number of the more advanced exponents of the above theories have lately been illustrating by actual demonstration the kinship of melody and poetry, portrayed by the same

person as vocalist and elocutionist. Exhibitions are given at which notable poems which have been set to music by famous composers are read and then sung immediately afterward, thus making clear the double value of a song which, musical when read, can be made more musical when reenforced by the power of another art.

One very interesting theory held by some of these vocalists is that the natural register of the speaking voice indicates the individual character of the speaker as do the lines on the palms of the hand. For instance, a high soprano voice expresses joy and merriment. Complex natures, who carry on two qualities of thought at once, speak in harmonies, with several notes at a time, and have magnetic voices. The minor voice betrays lack of confidence, the major voice indicates intense vitality. The mental atti-

tude shows itself in a voice with a sliding downward scale, as in most teachers' voices.

Other instructors by the above methods go so far as to say that all who can talk may sing, if willing faithfully to devote their time and energy to the cause. This argument holds much encouragement in it, for we all acknowledge that the charm of music is universal. It hushes the infant to rest; it fosters the home spirit and strengthens family ties; and if we could but understand the true spirit of music it has the most subtle effects upon the moral nature, and is sometimes an invisible agent in forming character to an extent entirely unsuspected by the outside world. We may all agree with that well-wisher to vocalists who writes:

Since singing is so good a thing,
I would that all could learn to sing!

OUT OF THE HEART OF WINTER.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

OUT of the heart of winter hear my cry,
O vernal goddess of the violet eyes!
Loosen a little these frost-forged bonds
With hope's warm sunlight, so that I may bear,
Soul-steadfast, the succession of the days
Until thy coming! Would that now thy feet,
Sandaled with green, pressed soft upon the hills,
Would that the low persuasion of thy voice
Were winning back the leaf upon the bough,
And the sky, sweet forerunners of the rose!
Hark! the wind-spirits of the gracious South
Across the solemn snow-leagues bring me word:
"O spring's most constant lover," they entreat,
"Forsake thou not her altars, for the hour
That shall reveal her glory wings apace,
A boon, a blessing, a beatitude."
Thus speak her herald-harbingers, and I,
Who ever am enamored of the spring,
Possess my soul in peace, and wait for her.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

ALPHONSE DAUDET.



ALPHONSE DAUDET.

plays in the decade from 1862-72. He wrote in all nine dramas and assisted in dramatizing most of his novels, but none achieved great popularity with the exception of "Sapho," which was also very successfully brought out as an opera only a few days before his death. With the publication of "Lettres de mon Moulin" (1869) Daudet established his reputation as the greatest master of the short story, and after the appearance of "Fromont Jeune et Risler Aîné," by which he signalized his return to novel-writing, and to which the French Academy awarded the Jouy prize in 1875, a new book by Daudet became an event. The novels which followed number thirteen, including the Tartarin series. The first four, "Jack," "Le Nebab," "Les Rois en Exil," and "Numa Roumestan," are social studies in which many of the characters were well-known Parisians thinly disguised. Of the remaining "L'Immortel" is the most unique, being a sharp satire on the French Academy, offensive and unjust, but brilliant and racy. The three of which Tartarin is the hero are delightful romances of life in Southern France, and are perhaps those by which Daudet is best known in this country. His wife, whom he married in 1867, and his son Léon survive him, both of whom are writers of merit.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Daudet had a geniality of soul which entered into his work. He never could have been content with the strictly literary triumphs which satisfied his comrades. Life, after all, was a matter of lively importance to him; here the racy emotions of the Gascon came into play, and the long list of his novels and shorter pieces, of his poems and journalistic writings, is a catalogue of living impressions. . . . In "Tartarin" Alphonse Daudet created an immortal character and gave to the world an inexhaustible source of purest merriment.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

He was both wit and humorist, and his love of the grotesque and the ludicrous was so largely developed that he has often been called the "French Dickens." But his style was French and epigram-

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

THE death of Alphonse Daudet, the celebrated French novelist, occurred very suddenly in Paris December 16, being due to an attack of syncope. Daudet was a Provençal by birth, having been born in Nîmes in 1840, where he spent his childhood, in great poverty and unhappiness, until his family removed to Lyons. Here he attended the Lyceum, where he studied little, but read and wrote a great deal. After a year's miserable experience as usher in a school at Alais, which later formed the subject of a series of papers to *Figaro*, he joined his brother in Paris. Here he led a life of poverty and bohemianism, depicted in "Le Petit Chose" (1868), until the Duke de Morny became his patron and employed him as his private secretary. His first book was a collection of poems, "Les Amoureuses" (1858), which brought him into public notice and secured him work on several newspapers. In 1859 his health compelled him to go to Algeria, which he visited often in later life. After the publication of a second volume of poems, "La Double Conversion," he abandoned poetry and turned to the drama, producing seven

matic and polished, as the style of Dickens was not. He was one of the master story-tellers of the nineteenth century, not soon to be forgotten where literature is known.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

It is to the "Tartarin de Tarascon" series and to the "Letters from My Mill" that most of his readers will turn most fondly. There they will breathe again the warm perfume of Southern France, bask in memories of Provençal sunshine, be poets with Mistral, and sight the blue of Algeria's skies. Tartarin is an undying type.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Another name is now added to the list of holders of the celebrated forty-first seat in the French Academy. Daudet had undeniable talent of a very high character and wrote some things that will live. His death makes a large gap in the small body of men still able to practice the rapidly disappearing art of writing in the French language.

EUROPEAN ESTIMATES OF OUR COMMERCIAL STRENGTH.

THE growing fear of the result upon European development of American competition in commerce has found expression during the past few weeks in four notable speeches in as many countries. Hon. G. W. Ross, minister of education in the Canadian cabinet, declares that Canadian investments and trade relations are seriously interfered with by the frequent changes in our tariff and complains of the great disproportion between Canada's exports of food products and those of the United States to England. Hon. C. T. Ritchie, president of the British Board of Trade, attributes the decline in our imports from Great Britain to the Dingley tariff and the long-standing engineering strike in London, but considers us, in any case, a more serious competitor than Germany, citing as instances of our encroachment upon England's commercial territory the contract for the Central Underground Railway in London and other important orders on the Continent and in Egypt and Japan. Herr Hammacher, a National Liberal member of the German Reichstag, goes still further in his declaration that the other American republics are ready to join the United States in a customs union and that Pan-Americanism will soon be a power more formidable to Germany than Monroism. The climax was reached in a speech made by Count Galuchowski, the Austrian minister for foreign affairs, before the Austrian and Hungarian delegations, in which he maintains that we are on the verge of an economic war, in which the European states will have to combine to support each other against the power of America. He says: "The destructive competition with trans-oceanic countries, which has partly to be carried on at present and partly to be expected in the immediate future, requires prompt and thorough counteracting measures if vital interests of the peoples of Europe are not to be gravely compromised. They must fight shoulder to shoulder against the common danger, and must arm themselves for the struggle with all the means at their disposal."

The Manufacturer. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The United States, if it keeps in its sane mind, will not antagonize all Europe, or all Asia, or all Africa. It has no desire to antagonize any nation. Our task, as Lord Salisbury, in his recent Guildhall speech, said England's was, is "to throw open as many markets as possible and to bring together as many consumers and producers as possible." There is no war or strategy, or jingoism or international hate, in such a program as this. If we continue to go forward it will be by the exercise of intelligence and skill, and it will be because we deserve to go forward.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The alarm of Count Goluchowski about the competition of America in the European markets, and his call on England to unite with Europe against America and Japan, is a fresh illustration of the odd notions about trade which still lurk in the heads of statesmen of the old school. No nation can ruin another with goods. It may undersell certain manufactures and damage certain industries; but it cannot ruin trade. Trade would be ruined by the foreign nation ceasing to buy—in other words, by the loss of his market by the native trader; and he would then go home, and withdraw his goods as soon as he found the demand diminishing. The way nearly all nations are fighting against the reception of foreign goods, and for the sale of their own abroad, is one of the great absurdities of human history.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The idea of joining all the diversified races and various political ambitions of Europe in a commercial union, of making business partners of deadly

rivals, could only occur to a statesman frightened by the increasing danger of a fearful war growing out of trade competition in all corners of the world. It is fear of each other more than fear of the United States that leads European governments to plead desperately for the union for which Lord Salisbury declared he hoped—the welding of the powers "in some international constitution which shall give to the world, as a result of their great strength, a long spell of unfettered and prosperous trade and continued peace." As well might he hope for a peaceful union of fire and gunpowder.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The situation is one which calls for a speedy increase of our defenses. There is no danger that this country will become aggressive, no matter what our power may be, but we ought to be able to defend ourselves, as readiness for war is one of the chief guaranties of peace. In the meantime our manufacturers and merchants should heartily unite to hold the advantages we have already gained in trade and manufactures.

The News. (Denver, Col.)

Strangely enough, the silver question is becoming mixed up in this discussion. An authority quoted by the London *Times* asserts that "the adoption of the silver dollar as the standard coin from the north pole to Patagonia would be a powerful lever in the realization of the Pan-American program of the politicians of the United States." The language is both significant and suggestive. It is an assertion by competent European authority that if the United States should readopt bimetalism and reopen the mints to silver the republic would establish a worldwide commercial supremacy.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

SEVERAL of the postmasters-general of the United States have recommended the establishment of postal savings banks, and now the present incumbent, Postmaster-General Gary, has in his annual report expressed himself in favor of such an institution. The fact that the introduction of the money-order system has been so successful he has used as an argument in favor of postal-banking privileges, and he suggests that the government could safely invest the deposits in public buildings. Objectors urge in opposition to the plan the incompetence of many postmasters in rural districts and the improbability of establishing the postal banks where they are most needed. Some are also afraid the government would not be able to pay the proposed two per cent interest on deposits without assessing a tax on the people for the purpose. Not only is there opposition to the plan in different sections of the Union, especially in New England, but opposition is anticipated in Congress, where several bills relating to the question have already been introduced. A discussion of this subject was published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for January.



POSTMASTER-GENERAL GARY.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

It would naturally happen, if the plan for the establishment of postal savings banks were to be adopted, that the places selected for the banks would be those where there are not now any institutions of the kind. The very fact that under the Lorimer Bill the interest to be paid on deposits is limited to two per cent is in itself a sufficient guaranty that the new banks would not displace those already existing in New England. An objection to the postal savings bank proposition—that it seems to contemplate an indefinite continuance of the national debt—is met by the provision in the Lorimer Bill, by which authority is given the secretary of the treasury, under certain restrictions, to invest the deposits, not only in national bonds or those the principal of which is guaranteed by the United States, but in state bonds and bonds of municipalities and counties.

Kansas Capital. (Topeka, Kan.)

The strongest thing that has been said in favor of government savings banks is attributed to President McKinley, who is reported to have said in conversation on this subject with a prominent post-office official that the establishment of the system would

tend to increase patriotism in that every depositor would feel a more personal interest in the government if it were the custodian of his savings. This is the best argument that champions of the postal savings bank for this country have been able to draw forward, and it is sound and convincing.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The people are inclined to think they would like the system, but they want more information before deciding. The popular mind being in this condition, the part of Comptroller Eckels' official report which bears on this question is of special value. Mr. Eckels gives the following table, which shows the growth of the system in the countries where postal savings banks are in operation:

	No. of depositors.	Average Deposits. deposits.
United Kingdom.....	6,453,957	\$489,344,875 \$75 82
France.....	2,488,075	150,691,705 60 56
Italy.....	2,896,768	89,724,465 30 98
Australasia.....	474,635	70,038,925 147 56
Belgium.....	882,370	63,693,274 72 18
Austria—		
Savings dept.....	1,110,091	22,124,156 19 93
Banking dept.....	28,363	27,270,964 961 50
Hungary—		
Savings dept.....	276,565	5,429,098 19 63
Banking dept.....	3,767	3,634,108 964 72
Canada.....	125,353	29,252,784 233 36
India.....	653,892	28,413,460 43 45
Netherlands.....	499,963	18,557,651 37 12
Sweden.....	408,288	10,696,745 26 20
Cape Colony.....	43,672	7,675,270 175 75
Totals.....	16,345,759	\$1,016,547,480 \$62 19

This, in a nutshell, is the available information regarding postal savings banks where they are in operation. The fact that they are popular wherever they have been introduced and have worked successfully and profitably both to the government and to the patrons is a strong argument in their favor.

THE FIRST MAYOR OF GREATER NEW YORK.



ROBERT A. VAN WYCK.
First Mayor of Greater New York.

(*Ind.*) *New York Herald.* (N. Y.)

The ancestors of Robert A. Van Wyck were Dutch. Like all Dutchmen, they were solid, stolid, and unimpressible. Their names have been interwoven in the history of New York from 1637 down to the present day.

The Van Wycks were socially on a par with the Stuyvesants, Kips, Stryckers, Van Dycks, and Bogarduses. Their name was emblazoned on the panels of the old Dutch Church among the names of the Roosevelts, Lotts, and Bogarts. They were prominent among the American patriots in the Revolution—not rash and impetuous, but conservative and deliberative, advocating unity and concert of action among the colonies before overt acts were committed. After the Revolution they preferred Jefferson to Hamilton, and stood at the side of De Witt Clinton in his warfare for the welfare of the state. Such is the strain of blood running in the veins of Robert A. Van Wyck. He inherits the traits of his ancestry, enlivened by an infusion of Celtic blood away back in his maternal ancestors. And this blood was filtered through generations of South Carolinians. To it is due his physical alertness, his love of wit, and his generous disposition. While he carries Dutch impassiveness in his face, figure, and nature, he is neither sluggard nor phlegmatic in character or disposition. No man more readily responds to a charitable impulse or is more quick to relieve want and destitution. Robert A. Van Wyck is neither a money-maker nor a money-lover. Among strangers and others his demeanor is friendly and discreet. Attractive in his personality, those thrown into his company instinctively like him. He has numberless acquaintances. They are to be found in every pathway of life, from the barber's

chair to the judge's bench. His silence is not the reticence of restraint, but natural. He is not a quick thinker, but a sure one, and is less liable to have a second thought than most men. He seems to be liberal of everything but his confidence. The mayor is in his forty-fifth year. He was born in this city. His brother Augustus, now on the bench of the Supreme Court, is much older than Robert, and was born in the South, in the ancestral halls of his mother. She was a woman of superior intellect and of exquisite refinement. Her memory is tenderly cherished by the two surviving sons. From her they inherit a chivalric bearing and an air of reserve. Robert was invariably governed by her advice, even in political matters. Not long after his admission to the bar he was offered a nomination to Congress where a nomination was equivalent to an election. His mother thought it would retard his advancement in his chosen profession and advised him against it. The nomination was promptly declined.

Robert was a member of Tammany Hall in the days of John Kelly. His loyalty to the Democracy was unquestioned, but did not lead him to support Mr. Kelly when he ran for governor against Lucius Robinson. In vehement words he denounced the recreant chieftain and left Tammany Hall, affiliating with the county Democracy. At a meeting of a branch of that organization some years afterward he made a terse speech, favoring a resolution eulogistic of the administration of Mayor Grant. It was bitterly opposed, but Van Wyck's speech carried the organization by storm, and it was adopted. The speech attracted the attention of Richard Croker, the new leader of Tammany, and the speaker was again enrolled as a faithful

adherent. He had seen the futility of any other Democratic organization and willingly returned to the fold.

His nomination for justice of the city court in 1889 was to him even more unexpected than his nomination for mayor in 1897. He had no inkling of the situation until his name was about to be sprung upon the convention. In the succeeding election his popularity carried him far ahead of his ticket. How well he filled his place upon the bench the record shows. His preference this year was a nomination for the Supreme Court. Mr. Van Wyck, unlike his Dutch ancestors, is a strong Episcopalian. His mother's family were of that persuasion. He attends church regularly.

If he is to be read at all, however, it is not by what he says, but by what he does. He has strong individuality, with great will power and the ability to keep his own counsel. His sympathies are decidedly with the masses.

Although devoted to the study of the law, he is abreast of the literature of the day. The magazines are carefully perused, and he is a persistent reader of newspapers. The mayor owns a small brown-stone front on Forty-sixth Street, near Lexington Avenue. He has bachelor apartments on the second floor. They are cosy and neat and tastefully furnished. He has a choice law library and a careful selection in general literature. In these rooms he has written the most of his decisions. Stern and unyielding as a judge, he has always been strictly just. It has been said that none of his decisions was ever reversed. This is not true. He lays no claim to infallibility, and is satisfied to stand on a par with his associates on the bench.

(*Rep.*) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

Mayor Robert A. Van Wyck is a native of Manhattan Island, N. Y. He is the son of a lawyer and jurist distinguished in the community half a century ago, who was also, like the son, a Democrat. The father's position was such as not to make it necessary for the son to earn his living before he became of age, but being of an independent disposition he determined to maintain himself at the earliest possible moment, and so when only twelve years old, in 1862, he found employment as an errand boy with a down-town firm. Here he worked himself up into a clerkship, but soon resumed his studies. He was graduated from Columbia College Law School in 1872, and was chosen as its valedictorian at the commencement.

He was first elected a judge of the city court when he was thirty-nine years old. He has always been a studious lawyer and an enthusiastic Democrat. His associates on the bench of the city court chose him unanimously to preside there. He was serving his second term as judge when he was nominated for mayor. All his life he has been a most democratic citizen. Any one who has had business with him has never found any difficulty in getting into his presence. During his stay at the City Hall the latch-string will be out to the people of the big city. He will devote all of his time to the duties of his office, and he expects all of his appointees to imitate his example. In order that an impression which certain sensational papers have created may be rectified, it might be well to state that Robert A. Van Wyck is the most abstemious of men. He carries temperance almost to the degree of total abstinence.

THE DREYFUS CASE.

THE main incidents in the Dreyfus case as they occurred about three years ago are as follows: Upon information given to the French minister of war, Captain Dreyfus, of the French army, a Jew and an Alsatian, was arrested for divulging important military secrets to a foreign government, namely Germany. A trial by court-martial followed, in which the witnesses for the defense were not called upon to testify and the evidence submitted has never been published. The captain was convicted by the testimony of two experts in graphology and banished for life to a penal island off the coast of French Guiana, where he was placed in an iron cage and guarded by sentinels who are not allowed to speak in his presence. Since this trial the friends of Captain Dreyfus have attempted to have this sentence revoked. Now M. Scheurer-Kestner, a vice-president of the Senate, who has become interested in the case, asks for a new trial on the ground that he has proof of the innocence of Dreyfus. Members of the Dreyfus family inculpate Major Esterhazy, who denies the charges made against him and requests an investigation. These charges and countercharges have aroused a strong feeling of doubt in regard to the guilt of Dreyfus.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The net result or tendency thus far is, no doubt, to strengthen the wide-spread suspicion that the young officer may have been unjustly condemned. This suspicion may be ill-founded. But it unquestionably exists, and appears to be warranted by most of the circumstances of the case that have

been made public. The lack of adequate motive on his part, the insanely violent prejudice against the race and religion to which he belongs, his own bearing throughout the trial and degradation, and the peculiar conduct of others who might easily be interested in making him a scapegoat, all point in that direction. To these must be added the fact

that the sole alleged evidence against him, so far as not only the public knows, but so far as he and his counsel were informed, was a bit of unsigned manuscript in a disguised handwriting. Certainly it does not seem unreasonable to ask if he were not possibly the victim of another's evil-doing and of the infamous Jew-baiting mania.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It seems to be certain that there was a conspiracy of some kind, and that Esterhazy, who has since acted such a contemptible and cowardly part, had a hand in it. It may be, too, that the offense which Dreyfus was charged with having committed was not committed at all, that the documents which have been produced were forged, and that no information was ever furnished to Germany.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It is evident that French opinion is undergoing a change, and that if men like M. Scheurer-Kestner

continue to declare that they have proofs of the prisoner's innocence popular sentiment will force some action on the part of those who are keeping Dreyfus in exile. Should it actually be shown that the degraded officer is innocent he would be restored to full rank with as much sensational publicity as attended his disgrace, and the ovation which the mercurial French public would tender him no doubt would be extravagantly enthusiastic and adulatory.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

Dreyfus evidently got what he deserved, and he should be punished. The spectacle of an American officer selling the plans of our fortifications along the coast would call forth the liveliest indignation, and it would end in the officer's being court-martialed and punished. There is not a bit of difference between this supposititious case and that in which Dreyfus was the chief offender.

THE SECOND CITY OF THE WORLD.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

NEARLY thirty years ago, the first proposition was set down in black and white for the consolidation of the districts which are now united in one vast city, the greatest in the New World and, next to London, the largest in the world. The population of London, according to recent figures, is 4,463,169. That of the new city of New York is 3,388,771, distributed as follows: borough of Manhattan, 1,884,436; Brooklyn, 1,180,000; the Bronx, 135,116; Queens, 125,201; Richmond, 64,018. Paris is a big city, but it has only 2,511,629 inhabitants, while the population of Berlin is not much in excess of 1,725,000. In area New York is the greatest of the four, having 196,800 acres, to 74,672 for London, while Paris and Berlin have respectively only 19,279 and 15,662 acres.

As the old New York was the greatest city of the United States, the new New York will in many other respects than population and area rival the metropolis of the British Empire. Her location on the finest harbor on the North Atlantic coast will continue to be the controlling factor in her splendid growth in wealth and population. The water-front of London is about sixty miles in extent, much of it unavailable for large shipping; while the water-frontage of the larger New York is 353 miles, almost all of it being practicable for docking purposes. To this port the transatlantic passenger lines send their finest and swiftest steamers, and the steamships and sailing vessels of many other companies have New York as their western terminus. The canals, too, bring their freights of breadstuffs and other staples to this port from the interior, and all the important railroads of the East and all the

coastwise steamship lines make New York their terminal point.

As a financial center New York is believed to be second only to London. Practically every great interest in the United States has at least a resident officer in New York, and Wall Street is the financial barometer of the country.

In facilities for rapid transit the new city is behind London, which has long had an extensive system of underground lines, similar to the projected road which the old New York has voted to build. Yet New York is not by any means hopelessly inferior to London even in this respect, for she has a great network of elevated roads and trolley surface lines, notably in the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn. The Brooklyn Bridge and the ferries will before many years be supplemented by other bridges across the East River and by a tunnel under that stream.

The tenth ward of old New York has a population of 413,000 to the square mile, the densest in any city of the world; the population of the White-chapel District of London is 393,000 to the square mile.

Greater New York has a police force of 7,725 members, while London has 16,000.

New York has 1,198 places of worship to London's 1,410.

New York has 720 newspapers and periodicals; London, 412.

New York daily consumes 25,000,000 more gallons of water than London.

London has a birth every three minutes and a death every five. New York has a birth every nine minutes and a death every ten and a half.

In London one out of each sixteen inhabitants seeks relief through public charity, while similar aid is sought in New York by one person out of each two hundred.

Besides her commercial and financial prominence the enlarged New York is by far the most extensive manufacturing city of the United States. Its public school system, too, is a source of justifiable pride as to the number of schools and their excellence. Here, too, will soon be built one of the most important libraries in the world; and here are Columbia University and many professional schools.

The old city of New York surpassed all the other cities in valuation of property, in the amount raised by taxation, and in the sums spent as operating expenses and for improvements. To its great totals are now to be added the amounts to be raised by the borough of Brooklyn, a city of 1,180,000 inhabitants, and to be expended there; and the revenues and disbursements on account of the remaining boroughs of the greater city. The colossal resources of the whole city are \$2,367,659,607 of real estate and \$404,001,063 of personal property.

The new charter empowers the administration which now controls the city to expend vast sums for public improvements, the total which will be disbursed under Mayor Van Wyck being estimated at \$200,000,000. The salaries of city officials for the four years will swell this amount to \$332,000,000, and this does not include the payments for state taxes and the expense, exclusive of salaries, of administering the city government.

This estimated yearly expenditure of \$33,000,000 for salaries and \$50,000,000 for public improvement—\$83,000,000—surpasses by nearly \$30,000,000 the revenue of the kingdom of Portugal for 1896-97. The combined budgets of Norway and Sweden for the same year were only about \$48,000,000. The revenue of the Netherlands in that period was only \$55,000,000. The revenues of Bulgaria and Rumania together were not much over \$50,000,000. Belgium's revenue in 1895 was a trifle less than \$75,000,000, with nearly equal expenditure. And the sum to be raised in a single year in New York will exceed the yearly revenues of three or four of the South American republics taken together.

ENGLAND'S WAR IN INDIA.

THE revolt which broke out a few months ago among the tribes of the northwestern frontier of India has acquired an unanticipated magnitude. With a large army Gen. Sir William Lockhart, the British commander-in-chief, has been unable to rout the Afridis from their strongholds among the hills. There have been almost daily skirmishes, with loss of soldiers and officers on both sides, but the most desperate fighting since that at Dargai Ridge occurred during the raid made by General Westmacott's brigade down the Bara Valley. The failure to conquer these tribes of the hills has produced in England a decided decrease in the demand for a forward policy in India. Recent reports state that there is to be a cessation of hostilities until the opening of spring, and that the Afridis are assembling for the purpose of considering peace measures.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Afraid to invade the Khyber district with even the strong forces in the field at his disposal, the commander now retires for some months, leaving the rebels in complete control of their original positions. A few accessible tribes have been penalized, but the effect of the escape of others from the punitive expedition is expected to be reflected in the continued surliness of the humbled districts. Modern artillery has not sufficed to beat down the barriers of rocks, crowned by men with rifles, which have confronted the advancing parties. . . . In the circumstances it is not surprising that the people of Great Britain are dividing into a "forward party" and an opposition regarding the Indian policy on the northwestern frontier. A large number of the queen's subjects assert that the scientific line should be projected northward and westward until the ameer of Afghanistan is a British dependent; until, in fact,

the Russian boundary separates India from the czar's dominions. Others insist that the enactment of this policy will be effected at too great a cost of life and treasure. Even the forward party is depressed, however, by what has occurred. For the first time in the history of the British army in India that body of organized troops finds itself opposed by physical conditions which discourage it. The forcing backward of a lot of knavish and fanatical tribesmen is now understood among the Afridis to be a task of which the British army is not readily capable. It can be done in time, but at a severe loss. Yet the question is whether the expenditure of blood and gold will be worth while. As an obstacle to Russian aggressiveness it would be of great value in the future. But simply as a means of disciplining mountain rebels it is thought unwise. Modern arms in the hands of the natives are too powerful a factor against civilization to be lightly dismissed.

HAWAIIAN ANNEXATION.

THE friends of the plan to make Hawaii a part of the United States seem confident that during the present session of Congress action will be taken which will effect annexation. Investigation shows that nearly two thirds of the Senate favor the treaty of annexation submitted to that body by President McKinley in June. If this treaty should be adopted the United States would exercise complete sovereignty over the islands. The treaty also provides for the organization of a territory with a local legislature, the power of veto to be held by the president of the United States; the substitution of United States treaties for those of Hawaii; the prohibition of Chinese immigration; the assumption of a debt of \$4,000,000 by the United States; and a commission composed of three Americans and two Hawaiians to draw up a plan of local government. Japan through her minister, Toru Hoshi, has withdrawn her protest against annexation, but many in the United States are still opposed to the project. It is reported that the advocates of annexation desire its consideration in executive session of the Senate, that the delicate questions involved may not be made public.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The opponents of annexation have already exploited their objections in the public prints and we know about the line of argument they will pursue. Very briefly summarized, these objections may be presented as follows: first, that only a small minority of the inhabitants of the islands desire annexation, and, therefore, it would be an outrage to impose a government upon a people without the consent of the governed; second, that the Chinese and Japanese coolie laborers must either be allowed the privilege of full citizenship or else be kept in the condition of semi-serfdom now in vogue—either of which is antagonistic to a democratic government; third, that local self-government means that an ignorant and irresponsible people will have it in their power to make all sorts of trouble for the United States; fourth, that Hawaii cannot be kept from statehood very long, with our political parties forever and bitterly competing for the control of Congress; fifth, that immense sums of money will be needed to fortify and preserve an American settlement two thousand miles away from the nearest American shore; sixth, that it is not the policy of the government to enlarge its territory by annexation.

The Literary Digest. (New York, N. Y.)

In "A Handbook on the Annexation of Hawaii," by ex-Minister Lorin A. Thurston, one of the negotiators of the pending treaty, five principal reasons for annexation are elaborated: first, it will prevent the establishment of an alien and possibly hostile stronghold in a position commanding the Pacific coast and the commerce of the North Pacific, and definitely and finally secure to the United States the strategical control of the North Pacific, thereby protecting its Pacific coast and commerce from attack; second, the conditions are such that the United States must act *now* to preserve the results of its past policy, and to prevent the dominancy in Hawaii of a foreign people; third, it will increase many fold and secure to the United States the commerce of the islands; fourth, it will

greatly increase and secure to the United States the shipping business of the islands; fifth, it will remove Hawaii from international politics and tend to promote peace and harmony in the Pacific by eliminating an otherwise certain source of international friction.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

No advantages can accrue to the United States that are not obtainable without annexation; but there are many disadvantages. It would cost as much to protect Hawaii as to guard the entire coastline of the United States. The islands would become a favorite field for setting up pocket states, and there would be the greatest difficulty in framing general laws, particularly tariff acts fitted to the needs of both this country and Hawaii. There is no good reason why the United States should not maintain the most cordial relations with the independent republic of Hawaii and derive from such relations every advantage and none of the disadvantages that would surely come from annexation. It already has a fine harbor and coaling station there and can get all else that it wishes by treaty for the mere asking.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Of course it would be unwise to admit it at once as a sovereign state, because of its vast preponderance of alien population, who are presumably unfit for self-government. But the territorial form of government affords an easy solution of any difficulties that may arise.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The question of annexation is not whether the government of Queen Liliuokalani was properly overthrown, nor whether the leading advocates of annexation of the islands are Americans or natives. It is a question of what the duty of the United States is with reference to problems of the future in the far East and the part this country may be called upon to play in regard to those problems. If the Hawaiian islands would very greatly strengthen the United States as a naval power in the North Pacific they should be annexed.

KLONDIKE RELIEF.

A BILL appropriating \$175,000 for the relief of miners in the Yukon valley was passed by the House December 16. The secretary of war is to have charge of this fund, which is to be used to meet the expense incurred by the purchase, transportation, and distribution of food supplies. According to the provisions of the bill the supplies may be sold to the sufferers, the prices to be fixed by Secretary Alger, or they may be donated to those who are without means to pay for them. Secretary Alger is also empowered to purchase reindeer and secure the services of experienced teamsters who are not citizens of the United States. Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the general agent of education for Alaska, is authorized as a special agent of the War Department to purchase six hundred reindeer in Lapland, and to obtain the requisite number of teamsters from that country. Captain David L. Brainard, of the Subsistence Department of the army, has been commissioned to purchase the necessary provisions for the expedition to Alaska and to superintend their delivery and packing at Dyea. General Merriam, commander of the Department of the Columbia, has been instructed to organize a guard for the expedition, consisting of two officers and fifty men. Through the Canadian minister of the interior, Mr. Sifton, arrangements have been made to secure the assistance of a force of the mounted police of Canada, and probably no duties will be levied on provisions transported by the relief expedition.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

Congress has voted a large sum of money for the relief of the miners who went to the Klondike and are now in distress. Of course these men ought to be helped, but there can be no denial of the fact that they were all warned before they started for the Klondike.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The appropriation made for the relief of the suffering and imperiled miners of the Klondike region is undoubtedly not too much, in view of all the reports that have come to us as to the condition of affairs in that far northern region. The fact that the money is to be expended under the direction of the War Department is a guaranty that all the plans will be designed and carried out in an intelligent and practical manner. For the department in question has familiarized itself with existing conditions, and has all along kept itself so closely in touch with every movement toward the Klondike that it knows exactly in what direction to work and what are the best means to apply to an alleviation of distress. . . . Of course people who are indifferent to suffering will say that many of the men to whom relief is to be sent are themselves to blame for their condition. But this may also be said of thousands upon thousands of people who find themselves in poverty and who are sick and suffering. The knowledge of that fact does not prevent the building and endowment of hospitals and of the hundreds of other agencies that "soothe and heal and bless." And so, even if it is not directly the function of the government to help men who have fallen by the wayside in the mad rush for wealth, they are our brothers, and they are destitute. That is enough.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Secretary of War Alger, in expectation that Congress would provide for the relief of the people at Dawson and other points in the valley of the

Yukon, has begun preparations to send forward supplies. The amount voted by the House of Representatives—\$175,000—is probably sufficient to meet all needs and pay the cost of transportation. It is particularly satisfactory that in the short debate in the House it was recognized that no distinction should be made between American citizens and British subjects, and none between localities, whether on British or on American soil. The sole consideration is that the people in the Yukon valley are in danger of starvation. This justifies the appropriation not only in the minds of the members of Congress, but also with the public. . . . Both branches of Congress appreciate the need of prompt action and public sentiment heartily indorses the measure. The gravity of the situation revealed by this action should be impressed upon all persons who may be thinking of going to the Klondike early next spring. It is estimated that something like 200,000 people will try to reach the Yukon gold-fields. While this is undoubtedly an over-estimate, it should be evident to every thoughtful person that if anything like that many people go to the Klondike and Yukon valleys in 1898, the danger of starvation next winter will probably be as great as it is this season.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Canada is willing to act with us in sending supplies to the Klondike miners, and if she would show a like disposition to help us protect the seals it would do her credit.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The authorities at Washington are commendably energetic in preparing to send relief to the distressed Argonauts. Though their present suffering is the result of their own greed and folly it is none the less the duty as well as the instinct of humanity to send them help, whether drawn by reindeer or snow locomotives, and without counting the cost.

EUROPEAN DESIGNS UPON CHINA.

VAGUE and contradictory as the reports from the Orient often are there seems to be no doubt of the fact that Germany has taken permanent possession of Kiao Chou, thus securing a naval station in China. Prince Henry has been sent to the scene of action and in a few months will visit the Chinese emperor, who, it is reported, will receive him as an equal. Other European nations are also actively attentive to their interests in the far East. Russia has entered Port Arthur for the winter and has forced the removal of Mr. J. McLeavy Brown, the English financial adviser of the Korean government. A Russian was appointed to succeed him. Despatches report the seizure of the island of Hainan by the French and the appearance of Great Britain at Port Hamilton Island, accompanied by a Japanese fleet. It is impossible to predict the outcome of these demonstrations, but the consensus of opinion seems to be that the partition of the Chinese Empire among the European nations is about to take place.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

When Germany's warships seized the port which they now control, and drove the native garrisons from the surrounding forts, some surprise was manifested because Russia, France, and England did not enter a vigorous protest at the action. The reason why such protests were not made is obvious. Russia, France, and England want to do precisely what Germany did, and therefore they assuredly would not object to a step very similar to, if not identical with, moves which they themselves are contemplating. . . . If a combination does exist to partition China, and if the work has already begun, we can be certain that the continental powers of Europe will, if possible, freeze England out of the game.

Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Under the circumstances there seems little doubt but that the European occupation of China, or parts of the empire at least, will be permanent, and that it will not be met with even the show of armed resistance. There is much greater probability of conflict among the various outside claimants who will ask a share in the division of spoils. It is quite clear that the Chinese would be better off for the overthrow of the present dynasty, even if such overthrow were brought about at the cost of their so-called independence.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

That the occupation of Kiao Chou by the German forces is the first step in the partition of the Chinese Empire by Germany and Russia is a fact which finds as swift recognition in Peking as in London. Another fact as clearly demonstrated by the utterances of the London press and by the movements of the British fleet in the far East is that England does not propose to be an indifferent witness of the game of wholesale spoliation. When China advertised her weakness to the world by permitting Japan to whip her she invited the fate which now impends. Considerations of expediency may postpone the ceremony of partition—prefaced, of course, by a great naval show on the part of the allied fleets—but China must go, and her obliteration from the map of Asia may easily be coincident with the dawn of the new century.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The departure of the German fleet in command of Prince Henry was the occasion of a great deal of spectacular display on the part of the emperor. He delights in such scenes and occasions, and he carefully made the most of this one. The emperor's toast to his brother was significant in its distinct declaration of the intention of Germany to maintain its position on the Chinese coast, and all the more so because it contained a clearly expressed notice to all Europeans. It was a warning to them to keep their hands off and let Germany have its way. So emphatic was the emperor's declaration that there would be no withdrawal from the position taken at Kiao Chou Bay, that it looks as though he had previously obtained some assurance from Russia, if not also from England and France, that there would be no interference with his plans to annex or practically to annex a part of Chinese territory.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Ever since Russia assisted in elbowing Japan out of the Leao Tong peninsula, there has been an understanding between Russia and China by which the former was to be given possession of Port Arthur whenever she needed it. When Russia takes Port Arthur, therefore, she only enters into actual possession of what was given her months ago. She acts with the full consent of China.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The nations which have most at stake commercially in the oriental grab game are England and Japan. It is significant, too, that the naval forces of these two powers are now cooperating in Korean waters. Both of these nations have commercial interests involved in the Chinese question which justify the liveliest attention, whether territorial partition is undertaken or not.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It did at first look as if Japan would be forced to settle her differences with Russia alone, but if Lord Salisbury does not make a retrograde movement, as he has done on other occasions when Russia had to be considered, it does appear as if England and Japan would pit their strength against that of Russia, France, and Germany.

THE DEATH OF COLONEL RUIZ.

HOSTILITIES which have continued in the island of Cuba for a long time are in no way lessened by the killing of Colonel Ruiz. A despatch from Havana dated December 20 says that Colonel Ruiz, after an ineffectual attempt by correspondence to induce Colonel Aranguren to surrender, met him by appointment near Campo Florido and offered terms of peace. In accordance with a proclamation issued by the insurgents to the effect that any Spanish envoy coming to them with offers of autonomy would be shot, Colonel Ruiz was executed. The conflicting reports make it difficult to obtain the exact truth in regard to the affair.



THE LATE COL. JOAQUIN RUIZ.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It now appears that the errand of Ruiz, as proved by documents upon his person, was to offer to the Cuban leader, Colonel Aranguren, a bribe of \$100,000 in cash and a high office in the proposed new administration of Cuba, in return for his desertion

of the cause of independence and the acceptance of autonomy. In addition, the proposal involved the corruption of another Cuban officer by Aranguren. . . . The death of Ruiz was not the murder of a herald or the assassination of an envoy. It was the execution of a spy.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Only one excuse for it is offered. It is said that a month ago the Cuban leaders made formal proclamation that they would put to death any Spanish envoy coming to them with offer of autonomy. That would be incredible were the statement made by any others than the Cubans themselves. On their authority it must be believed. Well, that is an excuse that not only, as the French saying has it, accuses, but condemns. That proclamation was a proclamation of outlawry. In making it the Cubans forfeited the right to be recognized as civilized belligerents, and set themselves down as either savages or brigands. It is the more regrettable because the American people have hitherto generally sympathized with the Cubans in their struggle for freedom. But the American people cannot sympathize with organized assassination.

COTTON MANUFACTURING IN THE SOUTH.

THE business of cotton manufacturing in the South has grown so rapidly within recent years that the oldest cotton manufacturing community, New England, has been called upon to adjust its operations in this field to the varying exigencies of the increasing competition. The prevailing conditions are emphasized by the current movement on the part of the New England manufacturers to reduce wages ten per cent, the mill owners of Fall River, Mass., having inaugurated the reduction at the beginning of the new year. It is stated by a committee of experts who recently investigated the conditions incident to the manufacture of cotton goods in the South that the southern wage scale in the cotton-mills is about forty per cent less than that which now obtains in New England, and, in addition to this advantage of cheaper labor, that the legal hours of work are longer in the South than in New England, that there are no labor organizations with which to deal, that coal is less costly, that there is practical freedom from legislative interference, and that the cost of production is materially lessened by the location of mills in close proximity to the cotton fields, thus doing away with freight charges for the transportation of the raw material. The number of cotton-mills in the South has gradually increased within recent years, and owing mainly to the economic advantages to be gained it is to be expected that the movement of this great industry southward will grow with accelerating force. Meanwhile the effect of this sharp competition upon the New England communities where this industry has had its greatest foothold will be watched with no little concern and interest, since it means the accommodation of one of our foremost industries to those social and economic changes which are inevitable in our national experience.

(Dem.) *The Times.* (Kansas City, Mo.)

In justification of the ten per cent cut in wages ordered as a New Year's gift of Republican prosperity to their employees, the New England cotton-mill owners dolefully set forth the inroads made upon their business by the southern cotton factories. New England's loss of this branch of production will inevitably be followed by similar losses in other lines. New England has no natural advantages for manufacturing except water. Coal has to be hauled from great distances. Food must be transported from other sections. The rigorous climate and thick settlement of the country make the cost of living high. Already far from the fields of raw material, New England is steadily getting further from the center of consumption, which is moving South and West. New England's career as a great manufacturing region is gradually coming to an end. Other and more favored sections are taking New England's industries from her. How far the process will go no one can say, but as yet no end is in sight. She is certain in the next century to suffer a great decline in comparative importance.

(Rep.) *The Cleveland Leader.* (O.)

A free-trade newspaper, commenting on the recent reduction of wages among the cotton-mill operatives at Fall River, Mass., contends that it furnishes a vindication of the free-trade theory, because the conditions necessitating the reduction of wages have resulted in spite of tariff protection for the cotton-spinning industry. If the free-trade paper were honest, it would say that the conditions

at Fall River had been brought about by the unequal competition of cheap labor in the cotton-mills in the South with that in the cotton-mills in the Massachusetts town. Protected from foreign competition, the Fall River manufacturers were enabled to produce goods at a low and constantly decreasing price, and to still pay their employees living wages. For years there was prosperity and contentment at Fall River. It is doubtful if there was a more prosperous industrial community in the United States; but when the cheap and ignorant labor of the South was brought into direct competition with that of New England under different conditions it soon became apparent that such competition would prove ruinous. The only way in which protection is directly responsible for this condition of affairs is that protection afforded the opportunity for building up the cotton-spinning industry in the United States. But for protection we would have continued to buy our cotton goods from England, and, of course, there would have been no cotton-spinners at Fall River to suffer a reduction of wages. That is about the only way in which the free-trade theory has been vindicated.

(Dem.) *The Constitution.* (Atlanta, Ga.)

It is queer that the mill managers and the editors do not perceive that the reduction of wages will not help matters. If the trouble is southern competition, there is but one way to meet it, and that is to transfer their plants to this section and secure the advantages to be found here, which are by no means confined to cheap wages.

CURFEW LEGISLATION.

PUBLIC sentiment appears to be slowly but steadily endorsing the wisdom of the movement inaugurated by the Boys' and Girls' Home Employment Association in 1894 to put a check upon the increase of youthful criminals. This movement, known as the "curfew ordinance," is now in force in over three hundred towns and cities, mostly in the middle West. Of the larger cities which have adopted it are Omaha, Denver, Pueblo, Kansas City, Des Moines, Topeka, Leavenworth, St. Joseph (Mo.), Quincy, Evanston (Ill.), and recently Indianapolis, the meeting-place of the eighth annual session of the association in December. The ordinance requires all children under fifteen, not accompanied by parents or guardians, or not absent with leave, to be at home at nine o'clock in summer and eight o'clock in winter. With few exceptions it has met with the warm commendation of city officials and the cordial support of parents, being easily enforced and effecting a great improvement in the youth of the cities where it is in operation. It is said that the ordinance is still in force in Salem, Mass., having come down from Puritan times.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Concerning the operation of the ordinance in Lincoln [Neb.], Mayor Graham reports that it was a complete surprise, both to the police and parents; that there was a decrease of seventy-five per cent in the arrests of youths during the first month; that no increase of the police force was necessary, but on the contrary there was a pecuniary saving from the falling off in the number of arrests. A decided improvement of the youth of the city,

socially and morally, is also noted. Superintendent Mallalieu, of the Nebraska Reform School, testifies that there has been a decrease in commitments of delinquents to that school from places where the ordinance is enforced, and Samuel M. Melick, chief of police of Lincoln, says: "Teachers in the public schools say that since curfew went in force boys who formerly kept late hours on the street at night, and were behind in their studies, under curfew come regularly, are punctual and mentally re-

freshed, and up with their studies." The chief of police of St. Joseph, Mo., writes: "After seven months of enforcement of the curfew ordinance, I beg leave to inform you that it has proved an unqualified success, and at the present time I am safe in saying that at least seven eighths of the people of this city give it their sincere and cordial approval and support. It has been instrumental in keeping hundreds of children off the street and away from public places at night who previous to the passage and enforcement of the curfew were accustomed to run at will at all hours of the night. There has been a reduction of fully fifty per cent in commitments to the reform school from St. Joseph since the enactment of the curfew ordinance." The mayor of North Platte, Neb., says that for two years before passing the ordinance fourteen boys

and girls were sent to the reform school from that place, and for two years since its enforcement none have been sent. The chief of police of Omaha says that there has been no occasion to make arrests under the provisions of the ordinance since it has been in force. The chief of police of Denver gives substantially the same testimony. The mayor of Des Moines is enthusiastic in his praise of the law; says there have been few arrests under it, but the effect has been all that could be desired. These reports will be very gratifying to the association which first conceived and recommended the ordinance. The larger cities are inclined to reject it as savoring too much of rural simplicity; but if it works so well in the smaller places it will not be many years before the adoption of some regulation of this kind is likely to become well-nigh universal.

CHARLES BUTLER, LL. D.

A CAREER of nearly a century's duration was ended by the death of Mr. Charles Butler on December 13, at his home in New York. He was descended from a distinguished Irish family, his early life being spent in his native town of Kinderhook, where he was educated. After graduation at an academy he studied law in the office of Martin Van Buren, then attorney-general of New York and afterward president, with whom his brother Benjamin was in partnership. In 1824 he was admitted to the bar and soon rose to distinction in his profession, beginning his career in Geneva. In 1835 he removed to New York, where he made his home until the time of his death. He was one of the founders of the Half-Orphan Asylum and of the Union Theological Seminary, in which he endowed a chair of biblical theology, and was one of the council of the New York University. He received the degree of LL.D. from Wabash University in 1853, and later from the New York University. One daughter survives him.



CHARLES BUTLER.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Charles Butler lived nearly a hundred years. He had attained distinction in a great profession. He had amassed an ample fortune. He had assisted conspicuously and efficiently in founding several institutions of national beneficence, and for more than threescore years had devoted time, labor, knowledge, and money without stint to the strength-

ening of their foundations and the extension of their good works. He had been for longer than two average lifetimes an exemplary Christian, a loyal citizen, a kindly neighbor, an honest man, and in every relationship, public and private, had borne "the white flower of a blameless life." And he died in peace and honor.

On his operations as a lawyer and business man, on his work for the orphan asylum which he helped to found, on his doings for the great theological school of which he was a founder and for more than sixty years a staunch supporter, on his share in building up the patriotic club with which he was similarly associated, on his neighborly kindnesses to the suburban village where he made his summer home—on each of these and of a dozen other features of his life a chapter might be written. But, most of all, the mind turns to his connection with the New York University, of which in youth he was one of the earliest patrons and to which he gave the latest thoughts and energies of his venerable age. He was conspicuous among those clear-sighted men who, far in advance of the spirit of that age and of all possibilities of immediate realization, conceived and fixed the ideals of that institution on true university lines, at a time when a true university existed in this country only as a dream.

FEDERAL QUARANTINE LEGISLATION.

To the recent epidemic of yellow fever in the South is due the renewed interest which attaches to the proposed reform of our quarantine regulations. The recommendation conveyed by the president's message that the national quarantine regulations be made paramount has lately been followed by the introduction of a bill in the federal legislature by Senator Caffery of Louisiana which carries out the president's precise suggestion. It would have the federal quarantine laws supersede all state and local quarantine regulations and vest in the president authority to control the operation of railroads and the movements of vessels and persons in districts declared to be subject to quarantine restrictions. The law now in force provides that the Marine Hospital Service shall aid in the enforcement of local quarantine regulations but it in no sense contemplates a coordinated and centralized system. While the plan to have the federal government exercise quarantine powers exclusively has provoked much opposition which in the end may bring about its defeat, it is not unlikely that some desired reform, if less radical in character, will result from the present agitation of the subject.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The time is particularly appropriate for legislation on this question. The utter inefficiency of state and local quarantine regulations has been forcibly demonstrated by the harsh and costly experience of the fever-stricken districts. In view of the results of this recent object-lesson—involving some 4,000 cases of epidemic disease and 400 deaths chargeable to it—there should be no serious objection to the enactment of a national quarantine law to take the place of the inconsistent, antiquated, and dangerous methods now in vogue.

Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

This is not in any sense a movement in behalf of paternal government. Quarantine regulations, to be of any service, must reach beyond state lines, and be carried out by a power stronger than any one state can wield. In short, successful quarantine regulations involve the authority that can only be employed by the general government, such as is already manifested in the regulations of interstate commerce. Millions of dollars would have been saved to the South last summer if a national quarantine system had been in operation. We repeat here what we have said on former occasions. No system of national quarantine, no matter how thorough, can prove effective so long as the yellow plague is allowed to breed at our very doors. Even national quarantine cannot keep away from our southern coasts the contagion that flies in the air or creeps in on the sluggish West Indian fogs blown inland. Quarantine does not prevent the spread of yellow fever in a climate where the conditions are ripe for it, and we cannot keep the germs away from our coasts so long as the fever is allowed to breed and grow in Cuba, where it exists from year's end to year's end. We must be able to root it out and destroy it in its breeding grounds. It must be stamped out of Havana and other Cuban ports before a quarantine can prove effective. Otherwise we shall have very costly labor for our pains.

Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

The objections to the Caffery Bill will come from hide-bound adherents to the doctrine of state

rights, some of whom, apparently, would rather die of cholera or yellow fever than enjoy the protection of a national quarantine. Such objections, however, should not be allowed to operate to the prejudice of the country in general. If the federal government has not the power to safeguard public health it ought to go out of business altogether. The main trouble we had this year was with the interior and not the coast quarantines. The latter, after letting the malady secure a landing, sat down supine and died or lived, as chance provided, but the interior was alive to the peril, and each town, village, and neighborhood on a railroad or navigable river proceeded to protect itself in its own way. The South, by a very large majority, will take chances on preserving the liberties of its people, if the federal government shall take control of all quarantine measures and appliances, internal and external, on the coast and inland. As we hint, a civilized method of handling the business is most needed in the interior.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The public are not contentious as to the precise sanitary methods by which the country at large shall be protected against the incursions of disease. The plan of federal supervision of the subject outlined in the Caffery Bill, if objectionable to the sanitary experts and experienced health authorities to the country, should be displaced by a measure in whose support these authorities can unite. Whether the federal authority should act of its own motion and exclusively when necessary, as provided for in the Caffery Bill, or only upon request of the local health authorities, and in cooperation with them, raises an important question. It is wise to encourage self-help in sanitary measures, yet Congress should legislate on this subject to the end that the country may have prompt prohibition in case local authorities, through inertia, parsimony, or ignorance, fail to adopt measures to stamp out contagion. . . . The cordon of quarantine protection should have no weak places anywhere if it can be avoided. Our chain of quarantine defense is no stronger than its weakest link.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

December 7. The Illinois state legislature assemble in special session at Springfield.

December 8. The American Forestry Association holds its sixteenth annual meeting in Washington.

December 9. The Louisiana Democratic State Convention meets at Baton Rouge to nominate thirty-six candidates for delegates-at-large to the constitutional convention in New Orleans in February.—New vessels of the revenue cutter service will hereafter be named after Indian tribes.—December wheat sells in Chicago at \$1.09 a bushel, the highest price since 1891.

December 12. Prof. William R. Brooks of Smith Observatory reports the observation of a great group of sun-spots approaching the center of the sun's disk; the group is visible to the naked eye through smoked glass; measurements made by Professor Brooks show this vast solar disturbance to be 100,000 miles in length.

December 13. Sixty-five out of one hundred and two publishers in New York City accede to the request of the compositors for a nine-hour work-day.

December 14. The Georgia House adopts a resolution asking Congress to enact necessary legislation to place Georgia quarantine regulations in the hands of the United States Marine Hospital Service in the future in case of yellow fever, cholera, small-pox, etc.

December 16. The president nominates Attorney-General McKenna to be an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.—The annual meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League begins in Cincinnati.

December 17. Carl Schurz is reelected president of the Civil Service Reform League of Cincinnati.—The following are among the appointments made by the president: Nathan B. Scott, commissioner of internal revenue, William W. Thomas, Jr., minister to Sweden and Norway.

December 21. The Indianapolis city council passes a curfew ordinance.—Josiah Quincy, Democrat, is reelected mayor of Boston.

December 22. A sleet storm in Texas causes many cattle to perish; frosts injure the orange and lemon crops in southern California.

December 23. Damage to the amount of \$500,000 is caused by a fire in the business center of Cleveland.

December 24. The Coliseum at Chicago, the huge building in which the last Democratic National Convention was held, is completely destroyed by fire.

December 25. About thirty persons are injured in Asheville, N. C., from the explosion of a can of powder while a Christmas salute is being fired.—Fifteen thousand glass-workers in Indiana return to work.

January 2. The report of the Monetary Commission is made public. Its recommendations have been embodied in a bill which will soon be presented to Congress.

FOREIGN.

December 10. General Ruis Rivera, the insurgent leader, is released from prison in Cuba, having been pardoned by royal decree.—A number of anarchists are expelled from Berlin.

December 12. The entire Haitian ministry resigns.—General Weyler arrives in Madrid and is ostentatiously received by ex-Premier Azcarraga and other leaders of the opposition.

December 15. It is understood that the committees of the striking engineers and the employers in Great Britain have reached an agreement as to the three leading points in dispute—freedom of employment, piece work, and over-time.

December 17. The French Chamber of Deputies adopts a proposal fixing upon ten hours as a day's work for railroad employees; this is to be followed by ten hours of rest.

December 18. The tombs of Voltaire and Rousseau are opened in the Pantheon to set at rest a long-standing controversy.

December 21. The Arabs along the Persian Gulf are in revolt against the Turkish government.

December 24. The pope issues an encyclical on the Manitoba school question.

December 27. Great Britain declines to enter into an agreement with the United States, Russia, and Japan to stop sealing in Bering Sea.

December 29. The French have occupied Odienne and Sambatigila in West Africa and the indications are that an advance against Chief Samory is imminent.—Fire destroys a third part of Port au Prince, Haiti.

January 3. Li Hung Chang is recalled to power at Peking.—Bread riots occur in the province of Girgenti, Sicily; troops are called out.

NECROLOGY.

December 12. Mrs. Nancy Allison McKinley, mother of the president, Canton, O.

December 18. Washington Hering, ex-postmaster of Chicago.

December 29. William J. Linton, engraver and writer, New Haven, Conn.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week (ending February 5).

- "Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter III.
- "A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter II.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Rhine Country."
- Sunday Reading for January 30.

Second Week (ending February 12).

- "Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter IV.
- "A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters III. and IV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Household Industries in the Colonies."
- "Insect Communities."
- Sunday Reading for February 6.

Third Week (ending February 19).

- "Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter V.
- "A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters V. and VI.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "German Social Democracy."
- "The Financial Markets of Germany."
- Sunday Reading for February 13.

Fourth Week (ending February 26).

- "Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VI.
- "A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters VII. and VIII.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Influence of Roman Law on English Law."
- Sunday Reading for February 20.

FOR MARCH.

First Week (ending March 4).

- "Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VII.
- "A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter IX.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Ingenuity of Ants and Wasps."
- Sunday Reading for February 27.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. An Illustrated Talk—The ancient city of Rome.
3. An Essay—Missionary work in ancient times.
4. An Essay—Migration, its causes and results.
5. A Paper—The Byzantine Empire.
6. General Conversation—Current news.

Second Week.

Justinian Day—February 10.

1. A Biographical Sketch—Justinian the Great.
2. A Paper—Justinian's administration.
3. A Paper—January 532.
4. An Essay—The ecclesiastical policy of Justinian.
5. A Talk—Justinian's legislation.

Third Week.

1. A Talk—American stock exchanges.
2. A Study in French History—The Paris commune.

3. An Essay—Rome in the time of the Gracchi.
4. A Talk.—Noted Roman conspirators.
5. Discussion—The dismemberment of the Chinese Empire.*

Fourth Week.

1. An Essay—The battle of Hastings.
2. Historical Review—The explorations of the Norsemen.
3. A Paper—Rome after the death of Nero.
4. A Talk—The history of the trial by jury.
5. General Discussion—The Hawaiian annexation scheme.*

FOR MARCH.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Geographical and Historical Study—Sicily.
3. A Paper—The Saracens.
4. General Discussion—The results of absolute freedom of speech.

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIAEVAL EUROPE."

P. 23. "Nicæa" [nī-sē'a]. An ancient town of Asia Minor nearly sixty miles southeast of Constantinople. The first general church council was held here in 325 A. D.

P. 23. "Mœsia" [mē'shi-ä]. A province of the ancient Roman Empire which included nearly the same territory as the modern Bulgaria and Servia.

P. 24. "Pannonia." A Roman province south of the Danube River and north of Mœsia.

P. 25. "Illyria." A province on the western coast of the Balkan Peninsula now included in Montenegro and a part of the Austrian and Turkish dominions.

P. 26. "Rhegium" [rē'ji-um]. An ancient city on the strait of Messina now called Reggio di Calabria [red'jō dē kă-lä'brē-ä].—"Cosenza" [kō-sen'-dzä]. A city in southern Italy.

P. 27. "Busento." The Busento River is in southern Italy and flows by Cosenza. It is a small stream.

P. 27. "Narbonne." A town of France near the Mediterranean coast.—"Orosius." A Latin historian of the fifth century A. D.

P. 29. "Arian." An advocate of Arianism, founded by Arius, who held the belief that the Father and the Son are similar in nature but that the Son is subordinate to the Father.

P. 30. "Patricius." Of the rank or dignity of the *patres* or patricians; a member of the Roman nobility.

P. 36. "Sugambri" [sū-gam'brī].—"Chamavi" [ka-mä'vi].—"Attuarii" [at-tu-a'ri-i].—"Ampsivarii" [amp-si-vä'ri-i].—"Chatti" [kat'i].—"Tencteri" [tengk'tē-ri].—"Bructeri" [bruk'-te-ri].

P. 37. "Gepidæ" [jep'i-dē].—"The Wash." An arm of the North Sea between Norfolk and Lincolnshire, England. It is about twenty-two miles long and fifteen miles wide.

P. 37. "Stour" [stoor]. A river in England.

P. 38. "Egberht." The Anglo-Saxon spelling of Egbert.

P. 39. "Ealdormen" [ēl'der-men].—"Ceorl." The Anglo-Saxon form of churl.

P. 40. "Lindisfarne" [lin-dis-färn]. Holy Island is another name for the same place, which at low water is a peninsula.

P. 48. "Chosroes" [kos'rō-ez].

P. 50. "Exarch." From a Greek word meaning commander or ruler; a viceroy; a governor.

P. 59. "Basileus." The Greek word for king.
I—Feb.

P. 61. "Mayfields," or *champs de mai*, were annual assemblies of the Frankish tribes, so-called from the time (May) in which they occurred. These meetings were held for various purposes. At different times they had the character of a military review, or of a national assembly in honor of the supreme chief of the nation, or of an assembly of warriors and lords to consult on matters of importance to the whole nation.

P. 63. "Aachen" [ä'ken]. The German name of Aix-la-Chapelle.—"Ingelheim" [ing'el-hīm]. A town about eight miles west of Mainz.—"Nijmegen" [nī'mä-ken]. A city in the Netherlands. It is also called Nimwegen [nim'wä-gen].

P. 64. "Reichenau" [rī'ke-nou]. An island in the western arm of the Lake of Constance.—"Corvey" [kor-vī']. A German Benedictine abbey about a mile from Höxter on the Weser River.

P. 74. "Friuli" [frē'fō-lē]. A district of Italy north of the Adriatic Sea.

P. 75. "Flanders." Formerly a territory in Europe bordering on the North Sea and extending from the strait of Dover to the mouth of the Schelde River.—"Poitou" [pwä-too']. A government of ancient France south of Brittany and Anjou.—"Anjou" was east of Brittany.—"Poitiers" [pwä-tyä']. The capital of Poitou.—"Gascony." Formerly a duchy of France. See the map of the empire of Karl the Great in the text-book.

P. 76. "Magyars" [ma-järz].

P. 77. "D'Outremer." A French phrase meaning beyond the sea.—"Transmarinus" is a Latin word having the same meaning.

P. 77. "Blois" [blwä].—"Champagne" [sham-pän' or, French pronunciation, shon-päng']. An ancient government of France bordering on Belgium.—"Chartres" [shärtr]. A district in northern France.

P. 81. "Montlhéry" [môn-lä-rē].

P. 83. "Altheim" [ält'hīm]. A German town in Baden.

P. 84. "Widukind" or Wittukind. A German historian and monk who lived in the tenth century. His great work was a history of King Henry I. and the Emperor Otto I.

P. 89. "Principes atque," etc. The prince and senator of all the Romans.

P. 89. "Clugny" or Cluny [kli-nē]. A town of France noted for the Benedictine abbey founded there in the tenth century.

P. 91. "Liutprand" [li-oot'prand].—"Res

Gestæ Saxonicae." Saxonie exploits.—"Wal-thari Lied." Song to Walter.—"Hrotsuitha" [hrōt'svê-tā].—"Lapsus et conversio Theophilæ." The fall and conversion of Theophilus.

P. 96. "Thanet." An island off the east coast of Kent, England.

P. 101. "Jumièges" [zhü-myāzh]. A village of France a few miles west of Rouen. An abbey church of the Benedictines was located in this town.

P. 108. "Bayeux" [bä-yē]. A French town a few miles west of Caen.

— "ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

P. 59. "Gabii" [gā'bi-i]. A city in ancient Latium conquered by Tarquinius Superbus. According to a legendary account Sextus, the youngest son of Tarquinius Superbus, came to Gabii and, representing himself as a fugitive from the tyranny of his father, became the leader of the Gabians. A messenger sent to his father for further instructions reported to Sextus that the king, Tarquinius, was in his garden and had cut off the heads of the tallest poppies. Sextus showed that he comprehended the message by at once killing the chief men of Gabii. The town was then surrendered to Tarquin.—"Præneste" [prē-nes'tē]. An ancient town in Latium on a spur of the Apennine range. It was a summer resort for the Romans and the temple and oracle of the goddess Fortune attracted many visitors.—"Volsinium." An ancient town built on a height about fifty miles northwest of Rome.—"Anio" [ā'nē-ō]. A tributary of the Tiber River which joins it a few miles north of Rome. Near Tivoli there is a waterfall of about 300 feet.

P. 62. "Cato Uticensis." A Roman Stoic philosopher and patriot. He committed suicide in 46 B. C.

P. 68. "M. Jourdain" [zhoor-dan']. A character in Molière's "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" who, being a plain, ordinary citizen, and wealthy, wishes to acquire the culture of a perfect gentleman and tries to educate himself.

P. 68. "Campus Martius." A plain in ancient Rome extending toward the Tiber from the Pincian, Quirinal, and Capitoline Hills. For many years the plain was kept free of buildings for military exercises and assemblies of a popular character. During the reign of Augustus buildings were erected on the south and east, but enough of the plain was left for races and athletic sports. The most important part of modern Rome now occupies this historic area.

P. 73. "Sardou" [sär-doo']. A French dramatist born in 1831. His "Bons Villageois" (Good Villagers) is an "urban satire on country politicians."

P. 76. "Murrhine" [mur'rin or mur'rin]. An ornamental stone mentioned by Greek and Latin authors and described by Pliny but so indefinitely

that archeologists have not been able positively to identify the material. According to eminent authority it is the same as fluor-spar, but proof of this is still wanting as no vases or other objects made of fluor-spar have yet been discovered by excavators.

P. 78. "Northumberland House." A famous historical mansion of London. It was erected in the seventeenth century on the southeast side of Trafalgar Square and a few years ago it was removed that a new street, Northumberland Avenue, might be opened.

P. 85. "Æsculapius" [es-kū-la'pi-us]. According to Greek mythology the god of medicine. It is related that Zeus killed him with a thunderbolt when Pluto complained that the population of Hades was diminishing.

P. 86. "La Rochefoucauld" [lä rōsh-foo-kō']. A French author of the seventeenth century known principally by his "Maxims," memoirs, and correspondence.

P. 89. "Labiche" [lä-bēsh']. A French dramatist of the nineteenth century.

P. 93. "Atellan." A name given to the early Roman comedies which were derived from Atella, a small town in Campania, Italy. From coarse farces they were gradually elevated to the plane of a comedy.

P. 93. "Palilia." The celebration in honor of Pales, the protector of flocks and shepherds. The festival was held on April 21, the anniversary of the founding of Rome. The most important ceremonies consisted of purifying the flocks, herds, and stables by fire and smoke. Feasting and pleasures were indulged in.—"Saturnalia." The festival held in honor of Saturn, the god of agriculture. The celebration which occurred in the middle of December had the nature of a harvest-home festival and all classes of society took part in the feasting and revelry.

P. 113. "Caius Flaminius." A general and politician of Rome. In 232 he was tribune. He died in 217 B. C.

P. 116. "Gracchi." Two brothers, Caius Sempronius Gracchus and Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, who were Roman tribunes.

P. 118. "Araby." A poetical term for Arabia.

P. 118. "Naxos." A seaport town in Sicily.—"Cynthus." In ancient times a mountain in Delos, a small island in the Ægean Sea.

P. 119. "Ostia." An ancient port of Rome at the mouth of the Tiber.—"Visconti" [vis-kon'tē]. An archeologist of Italy. He died in 1818.

P. 121. "Fiumicino" [fee-oo-me-chee'no].

P. 130. "Via Sacra." Sacred way. A street in ancient Rome, the first one opened beneath the hills.—"Forum Pacis" [pā'sis]. The forum of peace. It enclosed the Temple of Peace dedicated

in 75 A. D. in honor of the capture of Jerusalem. A part of the exterior wall of the forum still stands. — "Vicus Tuscus." The street Tuscus. — "Circus Maximus." The great circus which occupied the valley between the Palatine and Aventine Hills. Modern structures now almost cover the space.

P. 140. "Vicetia." The Latin name of Vicenza, an Italian city with a population of about 40,000.

P. 141. "Basilica Julia." A public building in the forum used for judicial tribunals. It was built by Julius Cæsar.

P. 146. "Chronus," or Cronus, is identical with Saturn, or Time.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE RHINE COUNTRY."

1. "Saint Gothard" [English pronunciation, *sānt goth'ārd*].

2. "Chur" [KOOR; R indicates a trill]. The capital of a Swiss canton.

3. "Tyrol" [tir'ol]. A western crownland, or administrative province, of Austria-Hungary. It is a mountainous country abounding in picturesque scenery.

4. "Ill" [ēl].

5. "Schaffhausen" [shāf-hou'zen].

6. "Kaiserstuhl" [kī'zer-stool]. A town in Switzerland.

7. "Bernese Oberland" [German pronunciation, o'ber-lānt]. The Bernese highlands. The southern portion of the Swiss canton of Bern.

8. "Mannheim" [mān'hīm]. See the map of the German Empire in "Imperial Germany."

9. "Vosges" [vōzh]. A range of mountains forming part of the boundary between France and Germany.

10. "Spire" [spēr]. Also written *Spires* [spīrz].

11. "Mainz" [mīnts]. The French form of the same word is *Mayence* [mā-yonss]. Mentz is another form sometimes used. See the map of the German Empire in "Imperial Germany."

12. "Taunus" [tou'nus]. A mountain range in western Germany.

13. "Ehrenbreitstein" [ā-ren-breit'stein].

14. "Andernach" [än'der-nāk]. A German town about ten miles northwest of Coblenz.

15. "Lorelei" [lō're-lī].

16. "Niebuhr" [nē'boor]. A noted historian of Germany.

17. "Yssel" [ī'sel].

18. "Nibelungenlied" [nē'be-loong-en-lēd]. A German epic poem written in the first half of the thirteenth century.

19. "Clovis," the founder of the Frankish monarchy, married a Catholic princess, Clotilda, who attempted to convert him to her faith but without success. When Clovis found that he was about to be defeated by the Alemanni at the battle of Tolbiac he fell on his knees and exclaimed, "God of Clotilda, give me assistance in this hour of necessity, and I confess thy name." He won the battle and was afterward baptized with 3,000 others.

20. "Hatto." According to a German legend,

an archbishop living in Mentz in the tenth century who refused to aid the poor during a famine. Therefore mice ate his body in Mouse Tower on an island of the Rhine River near Bingen.

21. "Lohengrin" [lō'en-grin]. See the article on "Lohengrin" in this impression of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

22. "Three Kings." The three wise men of the East who visited the infant Jesus. It is said that the relics of these men were taken to Constantinople by Empress Helena and afterward removed to Milan. From Milan they were taken to Cologne by Frederick Barbarossa and placed in a reliquary in the Chapel of the Three Kings, a part of the cathedral.

23. By the terms of the "truce of God" there was a cessation of private quarrels or wars from sunset on Wednesday to sunrise on Monday and during important seasons like Lent and Advent. This practice was introduced by the church during the Middle Ages, but when civil authorities became powerful enough to deal with violators of the peace this institution disappeared. See page 93 of "A Short History of Mediæval Europe."

"HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES."

1. "*Da capo*" [dā kā'pō]. An Italian phrase meaning again; from the beginning.

2. "Tusser." An English poet of the sixteenth century. "A Hundred Good Points of Good Husbandry" and "Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandry United to as Many of Good Wifery," are the titles of two of his works.

"INSECT LIFE."

1. "Hymettus." A mountain range of Greece southeast of Athens, noted among the ancient Greeks for its honey, which is still abundant there but inferior in quality.

2. "Amazons." According to a Greek legend a race of female warriors inhabiting the coast of the Black Sea and the Caucasus Mountains. They devoted themselves to war and hunting. An Indian myth current from Paraguay to the West Indies gave rise to the story that the Amazons once existed in South America.

"GERMAN SOCIAL DEMOCRACY."

1. "Montesquieu" [mon-tes-kū]. A noted French author born in 1689. — "Voltaire." The

name assumed by François Marie Arout [ä-roo-ä']. A noted French writer. He died in 1778.—"Encyclopedists." A name given to the collaborators in the French "Encyclopédie," chief among whom were Diderot and D'Alembert. "The Encyclopedists as a body were the exponents of the French skepticism of the eighteenth century."

2. "Hegelians." Those who accept the teachings and opinions of Hegel, a noted German philosopher.

3. "Proudhon" [proo-dôn']. A French socialist of this century.

4. "Bebel" [bä'bel]. A leader of the German Social Democrats.

5. "Fichte" [fik'te]. A metaphysician of Germany.

6. "Schulze-Delitzsch" [shoolt'se-dä'lich]. A nineteenth century politician in Germany.

7. "Fourth estate." A term applied to the lowest classes of society. The common people are called the third estate, a term which came into general use after the struggle of the representatives of the *tiers état* (third estate) for power in the States-General of France in 1789.

8. "Liebknecht" [lëp'knekt]. A journalist and a politician of Germany. He was born in 1826.

9. "Eisenach" [i'ze-näk]. A town of Germany about forty miles west of Weimar.

10. "Gotha" [gō'tä]. The capital of the duchy of Gotha, Germany.

11. "Roscher" [rōsh'er]. A noted political economist of Germany. He died in 1894.—"Robertus" [rod-ber'toos]. A German socialist leader who lived from 1805 to 1875.—"Rau." A political economist of Germany. He died in 1890.—

"Schäffle" [shäf'fle]. A German teacher of political economy.—"Schmoller." A political economist born in 1838.

12. "Niederwald plot." A plot to kill, by the explosion of dynamite, the emperor, the crown prince, and other members of the royal family, state officials, and politicians who were present at the unveiling of the Niederwald national monument.

13. "Halle" [häl'le]. A town about twenty miles northwest of Leipsic.

SUNDAY READINGS.

1. "Sufism" [soo'fism]. The doctrine of the Sufis, "a peculiar sect of the Mohammedans who claim supernatural intercourse with the Supreme Being, a mystical identity and union with him, and miraculous powers."

2. "Gnosticism." The doctrines of the Gnostics, "certain rationalistic sects which arose in the Christian Church in the first century, flourished in the second, and had almost entirely disappeared by the sixth. The Gnostics held that knowledge rather than faith is the road to heaven, and professed to

have a peculiar knowledge of religious mysteries. They rejected the literal interpretation of the Scriptures, and attempted to combine their teachings with those of the Greek and oriental philosophies and religions. They held that God was the unknowable and the unapproachable; that from him proceeded by emanation subordinate deities termed *eons*, from whom again proceeded other still inferior spirits. . . . Christ they regarded as a superior eon who had descended from the infinite God in order to subdue the god, or eon, of this world. Their chief seats were in Syria and Egypt, but their doctrines were taught everywhere, and at an early date they separated into a variety of sects."—*The Century Cyclopedia of Names*.

"Sabellius." A Roman presbyter who was born in the last half of the second century A. D. He was the founder of Sabellianism, in which, in regard to the Trinity, is expressed the doctrine that God, being one divine person, manifests himself in three ways—"in creating, redeeming, and sanctifying mankind"—and therefore becomes Father, Son, and Holy Ghost according to the manifestations which are mere aspects and not personalities of the Deity.—"Socinus" [sō-si'nus]. An Italian anti-trinitarian of the sixteenth century and with his nephew Faustus Socinus a founder of Socinianism, which teaches, among other things, that Christ as a man divinely endowed was entitled to reverence but not to worship.

3. "Boehme" [bö'me]. A German mystic born in 1575.

4. "Assisi" [ä-sē'sē]. A town in Italy.

5. "Schleiermacher" [shl'ër-mäk-er].

6. "D'Aubigné" [dō-bē-nyā'].

"THE INFLUENCE OF ROMAN LAW ON ENGLISH LAW."

1. "Fortesque" [fōr'tes-kū]. An English jurist of the fifteenth century.—"Selden." A jurist of England. He died in 1654.

2. "Corpus Juris Civilis." Body of civil law. A collection of Roman civil law compiled by the order of the Emperor Justinian (483-565). The collection consisted of the Institutes, the Pandects, or the Digest, the Code, and the Novellæ. See page 44 of "A Short History of Mediæval Europe."

3. "D'Aguesseau" [dä-gē-sō]. A French jurist and author, and chancellor of France. He died in 1751.

4. "31 Car. II. c. 2." The second chapter of the Statutes of Parliament enacted in the thirty-first year of the reign of Charles II.

5. "Magna Charta" [mag'nä kār'tā]. The Great Charter or "Charter of Liberties" of England, signed and sealed by King John at Runnymede, June 15, 1215.

6. "Ulpian." A Roman jurist murdered about

228 A. D. About a third of Justinian's Digest is composed of extracts from Ulpian's works.

7. "*Sui juris*." In one's own right.

8. "Theodosian Code." A collection containing the Roman laws from the time of Constantine to the reign of Theodosius II. The code was composed of sixteen books and was first published in 438 A. D.

9. "*Questiones perpetuae*." Latin words meaning a standing commission, a permanent tribunal for criminal investigation.

10. "Vacarius." A jurist of the twelfth century

born in Lombardy. He was the first to teach Roman law in England. He made an extract of the Code and the Digest which is still extant in manuscript.

11. "Bracton." An English jurist. He died in 1268. His famous work was entitled "The Laws and Customs of England."

12. "*Injuria*," Injurious or unlawful conduct.

13. "*Lesa majestas*." Latin, meaning high treason.—"*Crimen falsi*." A Latin phrase, the literal meaning of which is crime of falsehood; perjury.—"*Occultatio thesauri*." Concealment of treasure.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIEVAL EUROPE."

1. Q. What were some of the causes of migration? A. Hunger, the knowledge that better conditions of life existed elsewhere, and invasions by more powerful tribes.

2. Q. Under the influence of the Romans who took the first steps in civilization? A. The Goths.

3. Q. Who was probably the greatest German leader in the period of invasion? A. Alaric, king of the Visigoths.

4. Q. What idea did he seek to establish among his people? A. The idea of a free, independent national existence.

5. Q. By whom were the West Goths conquered? A. The Mohammedans.

6. Q. Who destroyed the kingdom of the East Goths? A. Justinian.

7. Q. When did the kingdom of the Franks begin? A. With the accession of Chlodwig to the throne.

8. Q. Who began to ravage the coast of Britain in the fifth century? A. The tribes inhabiting the territory between the mouth of the Rhine and the straits leading into the Baltic.

9. Q. What is the result of the pure German state established in Britain by the Anglo-Saxons? A. England has now the purest Germanic law of any country in existence.

10. Q. In whose administration did the reaction against the Germans reach the highest point? A. In that of Justinian.

11. Q. In regard to church matters how did Justinian regard himself? A. As the final authority in all questions relating to the church.

12. Q. Who were the emperor's worst foes? A. The people of Constantinople.

13. Q. What was probably a cause of much of the trouble? A. Religious differences.

14. Q. How was the Germanic element in the empire strengthened? A. By the formation of the

Bavarian tribe, the settlement of the Lombards in Italy, and the growth of the Franks.

15. Q. What was the beginning of the famous alliance between the bishops of Rome and the Frankish kings? A. The conversion of Chlodwig and the Franks to the orthodox faith.

16. Q. What was the character of Karl's reign? A. It was one long campaign.

17. Q. What were some of the effects of the restoration of the empire in the West? A. Germany and Italy were bound together in a union which caused the political ruin of both; the political unity of Germany was made impossible for many years afterward.

18. Q. How did Karl keep informed on the church and state affairs in his kingdom? A. Through the reports of the royal messengers, or "*Missi Dominici*."

19. Q. What was the outcome of Karl's activities in educational work? A. A real revival of learning.

20. Q. What were some of the causes of the disintegration of Karl's empire? A. The weakness of his successors; the partition of the empire among the sons of the royal family; the racial differences existing in the realm; and the forces aroused by the invasion of the barbarians.

21. Q. When does the history of France and of Germany as separate nations begin? A. With 843.

22. Q. Who was the first of the Capetian kings? A. Hugo Capet.

23. Q. How long did the Capetians in the direct line rule France? A. From 987 to 1328.

24. Q. Under Louis VI. what improvement was made in the French government? A. The power of the king increased, lawlessness was checked, and feudal customs became more fixed.

25. Q. What royal prerogative was assumed by Arnulf? A. The sovereignty over the rulers of the West and he demanded and received the acknowledg-

ment of his supremacy from the kings of Burgundy, Italy, and the West Franks.

26. Q. With whose death did the line of Karl the Great end in Germany? A. That of Ludwig the Child.

27. Q. What king attempted to revive the governmental methods of Karl the Great? A. Otto I.

28. Q. What especial honor belongs to Otto I? A. That of designating the direction in which Germany should expand.

29. Q. After the coronation of Arnulf what was the condition of affairs in Italy? A. Italy was hopelessly divided into contending factions.

30. Q. By what is the age of Otto I. marked? A. By great literary activity.

31. Q. When did the struggle for supremacy among the small kingdoms of England end? A. During the reign of Egbert, which began in 802.

32. Q. What task was left to the successors of Alfred the Great? A. To prevent migration from the Continent, reconquer the Danelaw, promote the fusion of the Danes with the English, and secure a united England.

33. Q. Into whose power did England fall in the first part of the eleventh century? A. That of the Danes.

34. Q. When and through whom was the English line restored? A. In 1042 by the accession of Edward the Confessor to the throne.

35. Q. To whom is Edward the Confessor said to have promised the crown? A. To his cousin, William of Normandy.

36. Q. What great battle resulted from William's claim to the throne? A. The battle of Hastings in 1066.

37. Q. What was the result of the conquest of England by the Normans? A. It brought England into the struggles of the Continent and made her one of the continental powers of Europe.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

1. Q. What reasons are given for the narrow streets in ancient Rome? A. The shade they afforded and the natural configuration of the land.

2. Q. What was especially noticeable in the façades on the streets of Rome? A. The lack of symmetry.

3. Q. How was the irregular aspect of the streets increased? A. By the little sheds put up against the houses and extending into the streets.

4. Q. To what do the Romans owe their reputation of being great builders? A. To their public works, such as roads, aqueducts, causeways, etc.

5. Q. Up to the time of Sulla what was the character of private dwellings? A. They were very simple.

6. Q. What quality was sought in the architecture under the empire? A. Grandeur.

7. Q. What was the essential room of the Roman house? A. The atrium.

8. Q. What was the character of its decorations? A. They were luxurious.

9. Q. How were slaves at first treated in Rome? A. With great cruelty.

10. Q. Who besides war captives were numbered among the slaves? A. Citizens who had undergone civil degradation, insolvent debtors, and the children of slaves.

11. Q. What effect had the change in the character of the slaves on the treatment they received? A. It tended to make the treatment of the slaves milder.

12. Q. By what other influence was the condition of the slaves ameliorated? A. By that of philosophy.

13. Q. What more than philosophy or law protected the slave from cruelty? A. The self-interest of the masters.

14. Q. How was the respect due a man indicated? A. By the number of his servants.

15. Q. How were slaves first classified? A. According to their nationality and their color.

16. Q. How was a master able to govern his large body of slaves? A. By dividing them into groups of ten, each group to be in charge of a decurion who was under the authority of a steward or farmer.

17. Q. What was the relation of the slaves to each other? A. Sometimes hatred and rivalry existed among them, but frequently their common sufferings made them form warm friendships.

18. Q. According to the terms of the law up to the end of the empire, when could a slave claim freedom? A. When he had been exposed sick on the island in the Tiber sacred to Æsculapius and when he had informed against a criminal.

19. Q. Of what were most of the emancipations the result? A. Of a master's willingness to give freedom.

20. Q. How were freedmen regarded? A. With contempt.

21. Q. What branch of industry never reached a very high degree of activity in Rome? A. Commerce.

22. Q. What two causes are given for the stagnation of commerce in Rome? A. A great disproportion in the distribution of wealth and premiums awarded to idleness.

23. Q. What form of commerce was most largely engaged in? A. Transmarine.

24. Q. What was the basis of the social economy of the Romans? A. Money-dealing and the leasing of the taxes.

25. Q. What was the object of the guilds formed by Roman tradesmen and craftsmen? A. Mutual protection and support.

26. Q. What was a favorite method of obtaining a fortune? A. By hunting legacies.

27. Q. To what did this occupation give rise? A. Many lawsuits.

28. Q. Under the Cæsars what was the condition of the Roman bar? A. It was very corrupt.

29. Q. By whom was a reform of the bar undertaken? A. Quintilian.

30. Q. Under whom was real progress made? A. Under Trajan.

31. Q. Who was one of the most prominent of the benefactors of the profession? A. Pliny the Younger.

32. Q. In what court did Pliny the Younger practice? A. In the centumviral court, where he found himself without a rival.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—V.

1. When were the Carlsbad Decrees adopted?
2. For what did the most important of these provide?

3. What provision does the Compulsory Insurance Act make for a workman who becomes disabled?

4. What Germans are liable for active military service?

5. What is the period of service in the active army?

6. How is the navy manned?

7. When does Germany's new code of laws go into effect?

8. How many sections does the new code contain?

9. With what subjects does the new code deal?

10. Previous to the passage of this code by how many systems of law had Germany been governed?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—V.

1. By what production is Klopstock chiefly known?

2. Is this work as popular now as formerly?

3. Why was Wieland called the "German Voltaire"?

4. Name his most successful opera?

5. What change was noticeable in the character of his writings after about 1760?

6. Name the principal facts in the life of Herder?

7. What is his greatest work?

8. What is said of the completion of his writings?

9. Who is the author of that famous patriotic song "Die Wacht am Rhein"?

10. When was this written?

NATURE STUDIES.—V.

1. What is the color of the larvæ of ants?

2. What are the egg-shaped bodies often seen in an ants' nest?

3. What tasks are performed by the workers?

4. In what state do most aphids pass the winter?

5. What aphids are often seen on the alder?

6. In what condition do they pass the winter?

7. In what does the bumblebee differ from the honey bee?

8. What seems to be the principal mission of the bumblebee?

9. Where do the bumblebees make their nests?

10. Which class of bumblebees survive the winter?

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. Of how many members is the Hawaiian Senate and House of Representatives composed?

2. How are they elected and for how long?

3. To qualify a person for a senator and a representative what is necessary?

4. What qualifications must a voter in Hawaii possess?

5. Who is president of Hawaii and when does his term of office expire?

6. How and for how long is the president elected?

7. To be eligible to the presidency of Hawaii what qualifications are necessary?

8. What is the area and population of the Hawaiian Republic?

9. Of what formation are the islands of the republic?

10. Which island has been set apart for lepers?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"

FOR JANUARY.

GERMAN HISTORY.—IV.

1. In 1785 by Frederick the Great. 2. To obtain Bavaria in exchange for the Low Countries. 3. In 1772. 4. Catherine of Russia and Frederick II. 5. The strife with the Roman Catholic clergy. 6. The Zollverein. 7. The Seven Weeks' War in 1866. 8. The peace of Prague. 9. At Berlin, March 21, 1871. 10. The imperial crown of Germany; the proposed constitution did not grant him sufficient power to conduct the affairs of the nation successfully.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—IV.

1. Weimar, Thuringia. 2. He aimed at a simple, clear style, but finally his verse became dull, insipid, and vulgar. 3. When he was professor in Weissen-

fels (1670) and later as rector in Zittau. 4. Molière, Racine, Voltaire, and others. 5. It checked literary development for a time. 6. Andreas Gryphius. 7. "Peter Squenz." Its best and leading ideas are taken from "Midsummer Night's Dream." 8. Christian Thomasius (1655-1728) in his lectures at Leipsic and afterward at Halle. 9. 1695-1723. 10. Albrecht von Haller (1708-77).

NATURE STUDIES.—IV.

1. Formicary. 2. From the Latin word *formica*, an ant. 3. From two Greek words, *hymen*, membrane, and *pteron*, a wing. 4. Four. 5. That change or metamorphosis in which there is a well-defined inactive pupa state between the larva and the perfect insect. 6. Yes. 7. Honey-dew obtained from aphids. 8. They keep the eggs of aphids in their nests during the winter and in the spring they carry the young insects out to the plants on

which they live. 9. By the shape of the body, which has not the slender waist between the thorax and the abdomen. 10. In old logs and stumps, or under stones.

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. In 1867. 2. A body called the delegations. 3. Of twenty members from the upper house and forty from the lower house of the Reichsrath of Austria and the same number from the Parliament of Hungary; alternately at Vienna and Budapest. 4. Each delegation deliberates and acts separately and if a different decision is reached by the two delegations they come together and take a joint ballot. 5. Francis Joseph I.; in 1848. 6. Emperor of Austria, king of Bohemia, and king of Hungary. 7. The nephew of the emperor, Archduke Franz Ferdinand. 8. Three ministers appointed by himself. 9. The president. 10. Individually to the delegations and to the emperor.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1901.

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"Light, Love, Life."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.*Vice Presidents*—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn. Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs. Samuel George, W. Va.*Secretary and Treasurer*—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—CORREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

THE month of February finds the class hard at work on a new section of the year's study. "A Short History of Medieval Europe" will serve next year to make our understanding of modern Europe all the more clear and effective. The Dark Ages often seem uninteresting to the casual reader, but when looked at as the source of our modern European civilization they assume a deep significance.

MEMBERS of the class will find map work very valuable in connection with this month's study. Our text-book contains excellent maps, but for purposes of drill in the circles the C. L. S. C. office furnishes an excellent outline wall map for fifty cents. Circles will find it an interesting feature of their work to alter this map from week to week as different phases of the history come before them.

CLASS OF 1900—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

*"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."**"Licht, Liebe, Leben."*

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.*Vice Presidents*—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.*Secretary and Treasurer*—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Younglove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

CLASS renewals are still being received at the Buffalo office, and members who have not yet secured the Membership Book are invited to send for it and thus get the most out of their review work.

THE question frequently comes up in the second year of a class as to whether new members may still be enrolled. This question is always answered in the affirmative. Any person who has read the course for '96-97 may, by paying the fee for that year, enter the Class of 1900 and receive full credit. It is not possible at this late day to furnish the complete Membership Book for that year, but the memoranda are provided, thus enabling the student to receive such credit as he may desire in the way of seals.

CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.*Vice Presidents*—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlyle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.
Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

A NEW blank form for report of reading was sent out this fall by the C. L. S. C. office, to be returned with the fee for the year and a statement of such reading as had been completed. This was not designed to do away with the memoranda, but rather to give those students who had not yet prepared the memoranda, or who found themselves unable to do so, an opportunity to report their work and thus give the C. L. S. C. office a record of their progress. This plan was tried for the first time this year, so that there is no similar form for the work of earlier years. Some members of the class have requested such a form and this explanation will make the matter plain.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

It is not too early to remind members of '98 of the requirements for graduation, which are very simple but also very definite.

1. The required four years' course must have been read.

2. The four years must be four consecutive years, or at least four different years, namely, the English, American, French, Greek, and German-Roman years. If a member is finishing a course which included Greek and Roman years before the French and German features were added, these will be accepted.

3. It is not necessary to fill out memoranda, but these are recommended, as the review is valuable and the seals are evidence of successful work.

Further announcements will be made later.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

THE famous Alpha Circle of Cincinnati has been letting its light shine to very decided purpose. Besides taking special seal courses themselves, they are exerting a general influence upon the community and fostering the organization of other circles. From the Alpine Circle comes the proposition to open up a correspondence plan between the foreign members of the C. L. S. C. and some of the graduate circles. A definite plan will soon be announced so that at Chautauqua next summer we may hear from many of our old graduates living in foreign lands.

A PLEASANT illustration of the strong hold which Chautauqua has upon many a community is to be found in the fine organization of the Society of the Hall in the Grove in Toledo, O. The meetings are so related to those of the undergraduate circles that they are a constant stimulus to the latter, who look forward to the time when they may share in the work of the S. H. G.

AT Fremont, O., the Chautauquans of that community have met with a great loss in the death of Mrs. J. B. Van Doren, a woman of unusual gifts and a member of the C. L. S. C. from the earliest days of the Pioneer Class.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL

DAYS FOR 1897-98.

JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.

FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.

MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.

NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.

BISMARCK DAY—November 16.

MOLTKE DAY—December 3.

PLINY DAY—January 23.

NEW CIRCLES.

CHILI.—In this far-away land a flame of Chautauqua fire has been kindled by a former member of the class in Dubuque, Ia., who is now in Santiago.

Several members of Santiago College, with a few friends outside, have organized a circle and entered with spirit into the new work they are beginning.

MAINE.—The librarian at Frankfort has joined

the freshman class, and several others will take up the reading, although not as active members.—The Progress at Belfast, a branch of the Seaside Circle, meets in the evening, while the Seasides hold their sessions in the afternoon.—That popular organization, the Society of the Hall in the Grove, has eight new members in Lewiston.—A pleasant class of five, all members of the same family, are making a good beginning at Brunswick.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Three very busy people at Oxford do not call themselves a circle, but read the books and meet every month to talk over the studies.—A quartet of readers at Methuen have entered into the work with enthusiasm.—Somerville makes an encouraging report of new members.—A strong force at Malden is deriving great benefit from the C. L. S. C.—Plans are making for a profitable year's work by members at Newton.—The Nutmeg Circle of New Haven does great credit to the large Chautauqua body.

NEW YORK.—A class of fifteen have taken the initial steps toward becoming members of the great Chautauqua body of students.—The Twentieth Century Class receives a new name from Rochester, and the Current History Course is also taken up by one person in this place.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Twentieth Century Club at Lebanon is alive not only to Chautauqua interests but to matters of national importance as well. In a recent discussion concerning the advisability of adopting postal savings banks in the United States, the president of this circle was authorized to write to their senator and congressman asking their support if such a measure be proposed. The replies received showed appreciation of the interest taken in the matter by the circle and both gentlemen stated that their views were in accordance with those of the circle. At the last meeting held in December the evening was devoted to Goethe, his life and works, especially "Faust," and a well-prepared paper on "Reminiscences of the Goethe Towns" was read by a lady who had visited these places. The meeting closed with a reading in German from Goethe's "Ballad of Mignon."—A home circle is beginning the study of the course in Warren.—1901 is increased by circles at Tyrone, Leona, and Reynoldsville.—A firm believer in the C. L. S. C. has organized a circle at Allentown.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—A competent corps of half a dozen or's is in Batesburg.—Edgefield is also making a good start toward the 1901 goal.

GEORGIA.—An exemplary circle of seventeen at Columbus are finding much pleasure in the pursuit of the literary study just undertaken.

ALABAMA.—Loyalty to Chautauqua and its interests characterizes the ten new members at Greenville, and it is to be hoped that not one will stop short of the golden gate.

ARKANSAS.—A fortunate beginning is made by the fifteen who compose the circle at Little Rock.

OHIO.—Swan Creek has in its midst several bright exponents of Chautauqua spirit.—The new circle at Ashland is late in beginning the work, but as they are ten very studious people they will doubtless soon make up what they have lost.—An energetic circle is doing excellent work at Springfield.

INDIANA.—The best of Chautauqua material is found in the well-organized class at Butler.

ILLINOIS.—A remarkably successful class of fourteen is organized at Ridge Farm.

MINNESOTA.—The new class is fortunate in receiving such efficient support as will be given by the faithful class established at Tracy.

IOWA.—The Monday afternoon C. L. S. C. of Dubuque is composed entirely of ladies who spend Monday afternoon pleasantly and profitably in the study of Chautauqua literature.—Ten interested ladies at Des Moines will take up the Wayside Course, which is much shorter than the regular year's course, but it is a valuable literary study.—Chester has an active Chautauqua circle.—Glowing reports come from the newly organized Chautauqua at Elliott.—Circles are reported from Cedar Rapids and Lohrville.

KANSAS.—The entire social and intellectual interest of Mulvane is centered in the C. L. S. C. work, and the circle is one of which any town might well be proud.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—An encouraging report from the secretary of Primrose Circle, Dundas, states: "Our circle has reorganized this year with a greatly increased membership and much greater enthusiasm than last year." They have a membership of twenty-three.

MAINE.—Members of three different classes compose the circle of thirteen at Springvale.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Hurlbut Circle is still holding up the Chautauqua standard, as is shown by the following interesting report: "The fifteenth anniversary of the organization of the Hurlbut Circle of East Boston was celebrated in an appropriate manner on Wednesday evening, October 26, in the parlors of the Saratoga Street Methodist Church. Invitations had been sent to all past members, and each was entitled to invite one friend; in consequence there were about seventy-five persons present. The guests began to arrive as early as half past seven, and from then until a quarter past eight a general reception was held, during which time ample opportunity was offered for the exchange of greetings and reminiscences. When the time allotted to the reception had expired the exercises proper of the evening were opened by the

president of the circle, Mr. J. H. S. Pearson, one of the original members and for the entire period of its existence its president, who in a pleasant speech welcomed the members and friends. The secretary, Otto A. Wehrle, who has held that office for fourteen years, was then introduced, and occupied a half-hour in relating the history and reminiscences of the circle. Then came the reading of an original poem by Andrew S. Howes, prepared for the occasion, songs by Miss Caroline Crane, and a short address by the Rev. Charles A. Crane, pastor of the church in which the exercises were held. At the conclusion of this feature the Chautauqua salute was given for each officer of the circle in turn, and for each of the invited guests who had taken part in the exercises of the evening. A light collation of cake and ice-cream was then served, and shortly after ten o'clock the meeting closed with the singing of the song 'Day is Dying in the West.' From the poem mentioned we quote the following:

Before I step down I would like to make plain
The main force that prompts and helps much to maintain
The standard so high of this C. L. S. C.:
It lies in the hearts of our leaders so free,

Who put forth their strength and the talent that's rare;
With wisdom and zeal no exertion they spare.
Blest with such leaders, and a royal good crew,
Whatever is started just as surely goes through.

Quiet and easy do the "Hurlbut" thus glide,
Moving so smoothly as if borne with the tide;
And so may it be, is the wish of its friend,
Onward and upward may their course ever tend.

CONNECTICUT.—A valuable help to the Chautauquans of New Haven is the Loan Library, consisting of the five books of the course, which are loaned to the members not possessing the required books and to all interested in the systematic Chautauqua plan; by this means several have been induced to join in the work. On December 4 a successful program was given in the First M. E. Church by the New Haven Chautauqua Union to review the book "Imperial Germany." The excellent papers treated of the subjects "The German Government," "The German Army," "German Society," and "German Domestic Life." Mark Twain's "The Awful German Language" was read, several musical selections were given, and the meeting closed by all singing in German "Die Wacht am Rhein."

NEW YORK.—The *Brooklyn Eagle* gives extended notice of the second annual banquet of the C. L. S. C. of Brooklyn and Long Island at Hotel St. George December 10. Nearly one hundred graduates were present and the occasion was one long to be remembered. The banquet was all that could be desired, and after all had partaken heartily the toastmaster, Rev. R. S. Pardington, called on a goodly number, who responded with true Chautauquan spirit. Printed programs are received of the Chautauqua Rally under the auspices of the Laurel

Chautauqua Circle and Brooklyn Chautauqua Union Extension work held November 30 in the Lee Avenue Congregational Church. Talks were given regarding circle work and Miss Cornelia Adele Teal gave a reading entitled "The Evolution of Mrs. Thomas." The small number composing the Howard Circle does not hinder the intellectual growth of the members. The Chautauqua work in Brooklyn is surely holding its own.—Three members at Philmont are enjoying the reading.—The circle at Newfield is successfully reorganized.—Every Monday evening sees the Geneva Class of 1899 assembled for study. They are fifteen enthusiastic workers.—The Sodus Circle is again at work with renewed zeal.—Watkins Glen Circle has entered on its eighth year with twenty-four members. They meet Wednesday afternoons, and in addition to the regular work devote one half-hour to topics of the day.—Hawthorn Circle, Andover, organized in '83, has about fifteen readers this year.—The circle workers at Gainesville are mostly juniors.—Reports from Camden show the circle members to be making rapid progress.—Unabated enthusiasm characterizes the circles at Watertown, Stedman, and Ithaca.

NEW JERSEY.—Toms River and Basking Ridge both have excellent circles.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The fifty members reported from Elm Park Circle, Scranton, in the last CHAUTAUQUAN is increased to seventy-five, all enrolled at the central office. The Young Woman's Christian Association Circle is as ever a moving spirit in Scranton.—Allegheny Century Circle is giving strict attention to the work in hand.—Literary ability is fostered among the energetic members of Maclaren Circle, Philadelphia.—The members of Merion Square Circle, Gladwyne, are of two classes; active members who must keep up with the required reading and associate members who do not read the books but attend the meetings and listen to or take part in the discussions.—All the members of Mt. Pisgah Circle, East Mauch Chunk, continue the work from last year and a few new names are added.—Classes at Waterford, Hummelstown, and Philipsburg are faithful in the pursuance of duty.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A member of the Class of '89 in Washington contributes the following poem to fellow members of the C. L. S. C.:

All hail the good time coming,
Ye toilers of the earth—
This mighty tide of progress
In knowledge and true worth!

See education spreading
Wide over many lands,
By students vast in numbers,
Who work with head and hands.

No longer groping blindly
Amid God's wonders here,
They grasp the laws that govern all
On this revolving sphere.

The planets and their movements
Around the central sun,
The stars that glitter in the blue—
They know them every one.

They've read in rare translations
What's best in classic lore—
Have mastered many other things,
And still press on for more.

Then all should bless Chautauqua,
And fervently should pray
That God may guide its onward course
In his own perfect way.

MISSISSIPPI.—The little club at Aberdeen will continue the reading this year with five new readers.

ARKANSAS.—The juniors of Eureka Springs have three freshmen to swell their ranks.

TEXAS.—Memoranda for '96-97 is forwarded to Paris.

OHIO.—A local paper of Cincinnati gives an account of a delightful reception given by the Alpha to the Wesley Circle. Addresses were made, letters from absent members read, and music and recitations made up the program. Concerning the circles the paper says: "The Alpha is the pioneer C. L. S. C. in Cincinnati, and was organized at old Wesley in 1878. Miss O'Connell was its first president. Most of the old members have moved to other states; a few are still in the ranks and have continued with the Assembly courses nineteen years. They have taken nearly all the seals and are now engaged with a special Shakespeare course, which will extend over three years. Wesley Circle was organized last year. Mrs. Harkrader was its first president and was reelected this year. It has a membership of about twenty. There is a movement urged to have a reunion of all the Chautauqua circles in the city, which no doubt will be arranged. The C. L. S. C. includes some of the most intellectual minds of the city, who are taking the courses for systematic training."—A large class of 1900's have reorganized in Portsmouth, and are now making a bold fight for the completion of the course with their class.—Faithful as ever is the circle at Fremont, which has one Pioneer and many other graduates, some of whom will take the Current History Course.

INDIANA.—Chautauquans of several different classes are joined in one circle at Jefferson.

ILLINOIS.—The Hyde Park Chautauqua Circle of Chicago has been organized and still has Dr. N. I. Rubinkam for its president. The name has recently been adopted. Six energetic people with no other name than plain "circle" are holding up the Chautauqua banner in Chicago, working conscientiously and receiving great benefit. The Oakland Circle of this city is making its presence felt through a lecture course given by W. O. Shepard, pastor of Oakland M. E. Church, taking up topics relative to the subjects studied. Some of

the topics are: "Modern Europe: the Great Chess-Board," "The World's Debt to Rome," "Is our Civilization Permanent?" "Masters and Masterpieces."—The membership of the class at Elgin has reached twenty-two.

WISCONSIN.—Rapid strides are made by the readers at Oshkosh toward the completion of the work.

MINNESOTA.—"The C. L. S. C. class of Winona, which was organized last year and carried on by the earnest efforts of Mrs. F. S. Little, did good work with a membership of fourteen. The year closed with an entertainment given by the members, entitled 'Women of Athens.' This year began favorably with an additional membership of six."

IOWA.—The twenty active ladies of the Chautauqua circle of Gilman are very much alive, as is shown by the active part they take in the movements of their town. They have conceived the notion of an organization for the improvement of the appearance of the town. They met with the council and are now soliciting the cooperation of all interested in beautifying Gilman and have received, thus far, hearty support.—The circle in Des Moines known as the Oaklawn Circle is in its second year and the interest is commendable and encouraging. They have instituted the custom of having a social day each month, when a social hour and light refreshments follow a short program. This plan has proved very successful. Forest Home C. L. S. C. of this city is giving attention to literary matters of the Chautauqua Course.—Encouraging reports come from Winterset and Sheldon.—Ten enthusiastic readers are reported from Lime Springs.—Newton and State Center find profit in systematic work.—Grundy Center Circle has increased from eight to seventeen.—A loyal Chautauquan from Bedford writes: "My initiation card to the C. L. S. C. in Onedia, Ill., was dated October 4, 1887. That was my seventieth birthday anniversary. I read every required reading during the four years, besides many hundred pages more bearing on the required themes. I will now say that this eighth decade has been one of the most fruitful and enjoyable of my life."

MISSOURI.—The importance of registering in the general C. L. S. C. is realized by the Pilgrims of St. Louis; with their large number of new names they now have about forty.—A great increase of interest is felt among the Ianthas of Carthage.—Faithful work is done by the students of Marshall.—Strong circles are found in West Plains and Kansas City.

KANSAS.—This state is more than ever favorable to Chautauqua. Circles are found at Ottawa, Lawrence, and Leavenworth.—South Haven is proud of an energetic band of workers.—The Athenas of Lawrence meet Friday afternoons for two hours.

—Vincent Circle, of Paola, Class of 1900, is taking a firm hold of the work for the year.

CALIFORNIA.—William I. Day was appropriately celebrated by the Chautauquans at San José. The permanent organization of the circle was effected to the satisfaction of all.—Circles at Downey and Escondido are loyal Chautauquans.—Excellent work is done by the Peasant Circle at Pasadena.

OREGON.—“The Willamette Circle of Portland continues to grow and to maintain that spirit of enthusiasm and vigor that always means success. It is in itself a fit example of the superior beauty and merit of unselfish cooperation. At the meeting

Monday evening, November 1, a unique program was carried out. After the usual discussions and review of the lessons, refreshments were brought in—a surprise to all but the committee and a few participants—after which affairs were conducted somewhat on the plan of a banquet. Toasts were proposed and responded to in a manner becoming the dignity and spirit of a literary organization, and as engendering cordial fellowship and happy good will it will ever be remembered as a profitable and delightful occasion.”

NEW MEXICO.—The Cactus Circle at East Las Vegas is making a good start for the new year.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Fiction.

Again Marion Crawford has illustrated his power to produce fiction of great dramatic possibilities by a recent work entitled “Corleone.”* In the personages he has created he has perfectly reproduced the Italian and Sicilian character, and in making the scene of action alternately Rome and Sicily he makes a corresponding change in the social environment, the quiet, dignified conventionalities of cultured Rome being replaced by the excitements and terrors of Sicilian brigandage. The members of the Saracinesca and Pagliuca families are the people most concerned in the events described, and the introduction of an American heiress serves to bring out more forcefully the unscrupulousness of that one of the Pagliuca brothers who had inherited the title Prince of Corleone. In the construction and development of the plot there is displayed much ingenuity. One of the Saracinesca brothers, Orsino, is the *fiancé* of the supposed sister of the Pagliucas, who own the Corleone estate in Sicily and who are on very friendly terms with the brigands. The estate is sold to Orsino's cousin, whom he accompanies to Sicily to take possession of the property. From this very simple beginning there is evolved a story full of thrilling events.

A volume of short stories by Flora Annie Steel is called “In the Permanent Way.”† In these nineteen tales the author shows an unusual knowledge of Indian customs and traditions and in the easy style of a skilful writer she has conveyed her impressions to others.

From the stories of W. J. Dawson in “Thro' Lattice-Windows”‡ we learn that in Barford, an

English town, there are many curious types of humanity, and homely though their lives may be they are not utterly void of the pleasures and sorrows which enter into the lives of people in less humble circumstances. The glimpses he gives us of life and character in this quiet town are full of pathos, with quiet suggestions of humor. Each of the nineteen stories in the collection is an interesting recital.

Readers of novels who are looking for something unique and original in the development of a plot should peruse “At the Cross-Roads.”* It is the story of a young and aspiring London author who loses the manuscript of a story, supposedly by fire. It is heavily insured, and the insurance company refusing to pay the indemnity the author sues for the money, but loses the case. The company then has him arrested for attempting to obtain money under false pretenses, and after a jury trial he is sentenced to several years' imprisonment. The principal events of the story cover a period of many years after the young man's release from imprisonment, and the author, while cleverly portraying character and vividly describing scenes, artfully withholds the knowledge of what really happened to the manuscript until almost the close of the story.

There is a pleasing diversity in the phases of life which Hamlin Garland has depicted in “Wayside Courtships.”† It is the ranchman, the prairie farmer, the lumberman, the minister, the lawyer, or the college student who has a place in at least one of the dozen stories of the collection, and every character and every tale the author has invested with a reality that is almost convincing in its force. There is not an uninteresting story in the volume.

Richard Malcolm Johnston is the author of a

* *Corleone. A Tale of Sicily.* By F. Marion Crawford. Two vols. 336+341 pp. \$2.00.—† *In the Permanent Way.* By Flora Annie Steel. 400 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ *Thro' Lattice-Windows.* By W. J. Dawson. 384 pp. New York: Doubleday and McClure Co.

* *At the Cross-Roads.* By F. F. Montrésor. 425 pp.—

† *Wayside Courtships.* By Hamlin Garland. 281 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

collection of short stories called "Old Times in Middle Georgia,"* nearly all of which have previously appeared in prominent periodicals. The author has made "old Mr. Pate" a prominent personage in the tales and often he relates in the *patois* of the time entertaining stories of his neighbors. There are other interesting characters, homely though they be, and the frequent touches of humor in the recital of romantic incidents gives to them a very pleasing piquancy.

Tolstoi's interpretation of Christ's teaching is embodied in a volume bearing the title "The Gospel in Brief,"† a translation from the Russian. It is not at all argumentative but a condensation of the four Gospels. Though many readers will find sentiments in it to criticize, it is interesting as an exposition of the principles on which was founded the belief of this noted man.

Miscellaneous. "A study of the conditions of the production and distribution of literature from the fall of the Roman Empire to the close of the seventeenth century" is the sub-title of George Haven Putnam's "Books and Their Makers During the Middle Ages."‡ The second volume in point of time deals with literary production from 1500 to 1709, and the information it contains in regard to printed books is largely in the form of biographies of printer-publishers. In the last part of the volume is presented an account of the regulations and privileges of the book trade and the "development of the conception of literary property." A very comprehensive index completes the work and greatly increases its value as a book of reference.

A very complete account of the development of the art of music has been added to The International Scientific Series.|| In the opening chapter the author gives his theory in regard to the origin of music. Then follow chapters on the evolution of the scale, folk-music, choral-music, instrumental music, the opera, and the sonata form, with a short disquisition on the tendencies of music. The work is written in a plain, pellucid style and to those interested in this particular art it will be especially valuable.

While Carpenter's Geographical Reader,§ as the author tells us, is intended primarily as a supplement to the study of geography, it also serves a high

purpose as a book for the general reader. In a simple, perspicuous style Mr. Carpenter has written about the different governments of the Asiatic grand division, the people, their customs, and their habits, making a very complete picture of oriental life. Many excellent illustrations and several maps are valuable adjuncts to this volume.

The rules that guide polite society in New York are those upon which the author of "The Complete Bachelor"* has based his advice to young men. The statements are well expressed and contain information on the etiquette of dress, calls, cards, club life, the dinner, the dance, and a variety of other subjects interesting to the well-bred, genteel member of society.

There is much wholesome advice and common sense combined in "College Training for Women."† Lest too much be expected of a college, the opening chapter tells what it can do for young women. Preparatory training, the choice of a college, and life at the institution are subjects next presented, and these are followed by essays on the influence of the college woman in society and the home and the benefits of college training for women wage-earners. These thoughts are all presented in a simple yet forceful way and they are well worth reading.

"Polyhymnia"‡ is the title of a large collection of quartets, trios, and choruses for male voices. The selections are varied in character and they include sacred, national, and patriotic songs, besides a large number of songs of a miscellaneous character. Many of the compositions have been arranged from the works of some of the greatest composers. Among them are Abt, Beethoven, Mozart, Mendelssohn, Schubert, and Haydn. A frontispiece represents the artist's conception of Polyhymnia, the muse of song. The book is well printed and well bound.

Seventeen of the orations, addresses, and papers written by Dr. Henry Codman Potter are collected in a neatly bound volume under the title "The Scholar and the State."|| The duties of the scholar and the Christian as a citizen, a business man, and a philanthropist are forcefully set forth in clear, concise English. Science in its relation to the present modes of life, music, social science, and the

* The Complete Bachelor. By the author of the "As Seen by Him" papers. 218 pp. \$1.25. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† College Training for Women. By Kate Holladay Claghorn, Ph.D. (Yale). 270 pp. \$1.25. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ Polyhymnia. A Collection of Quartets and Choruses for Male Voices. Compiled and arranged by John W. Tufts. 242 pp. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

|| The Scholar and the State and other Orations and Addresses. By Henry Codman Potter, D.D., LL.D. 335 pp. New York: The Century Co.

* Old Times in Middle Georgia. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. 249 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† The Gospel in Brief. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. 237 pp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ Books and Their Makers During the Middle Ages. By Geo. Haven Putnam, A.M. 548 pp. \$2.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

|| The Evolution of the Art of Music. By C. Hubert H. Parry. 352 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ Asia. By Frank G. Carpenter. 304 pp. New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago: American Book Company.

American cathedral are other subjects of permanent interest treated in this collection.

In "Select Poems of Robert Burns" * the editor, Andrew J. George, M. A., has collected those poems he "has found suitable for the class-room and the home," thereby contributing much to the accomplishment of his purpose to establish a friendship between Burns and students of literature and create within them a love "of the matchless melody of a master song." The usual helps accompanying such a volume—introduction, notes, and glossary—are replete with interesting information.

One of Heath's English Classics series is entitled "The Princess." † This medley by Lord Tennyson is presented in a handy form for study, being plentifully supplied with notes, and the introduction gives the opinions of celebrated people concerning "The Princess." The book contains also a long list of biographical and critical references which will felicitate the student of Tennyson.

History. The author of "The Making of Pennsylvania" has continued the history of this division of the Union in a book entitled "Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth." ‡ He first disproves the commonly accepted statement that William Penn was the originator of the plan to secure territory on the Delaware as a place of safety for persecuted Quakers. Then in a smooth, pleasant style he proceeds to tell of Penn's exploits, the administration of the different governors, the commercial and educational development of the colony, the revolutionary movement in Pennsylvania, and the subsequent rebellions which have occurred within the state. Pennsylvania's part in the Civil War and "The Pre-eminence of Philadelphia" are interesting subjects treated in two of the chapters, but the detailed history closes with an account of the Whisky Rebellion. Two maps—one of the colony and the other of the Gettysburg battle-field—accompany the text.

A most interesting work dealing with French history is entitled "The Evolution of France Under the Third Republic." § It is not a formal history but rather an argumentative presentation of political affairs in France, which includes a recital of important historical incidents since 1870. The author also sets forth in a masterly way the contemporary

French character, giving the reader a clear idea of present-day life in France. The work has been translated into excellent English by Isabel F. Hapgood, and the introductory pages, which are of a biographical nature, are the work of Dr. Albert Shaw. More than a dozen excellent portraits of eminent Frenchmen make up the pictorial part of the volume.

A series of studies in United States history has the unique and appropriate title "With the Fathers." * It is a collection of essays by John Bach McMaster previously published in some of the prominent periodicals. In the presentation of the Monroe Doctrine there are letters from Madison to Monroe and the opinions concerning it expressed in English publications of 1824. That political corruption was not unknown before our time is shown by an account of a case of filibustering in the early history of the Pennsylvania assembly. The history of the "Know-nothings," † the framing of the Constitution, the first inauguration, the possibility of sound finance under a government like that of the United States, Franklin's residence in France, and the acquisition of territory are other subjects which this able author treats in his well-known popular style.

Some of the marvelous and the extraordinary events which have influenced commercial conditions J. Macdonald Oxley has recounted in an easy style calculated to engage the attention of the youth of the land. There are thirteen of these tales, which the author has denominated "The Romance of Commerce." ‡ They include accounts of John Law's speculation, the South Sea bubble, the tulip mania, the search for a northwest passage, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and other enterprises in different countries of the world during the past centuries. The recitals are full of interesting information, which is told in a way to be easily remembered.

"The War of Greek Independence" § is the title of an historical work by W. Alison Phillips. The events between 1821 and 1833 the author has set forth in a plain, lucid manner. Although the volume is not the result of original research, as the preface states, it serves the purpose of a larger work on the same subject, bringing before the reader facts which will help him the more easily to comprehend the significance of recent events in Greece.

* With the Fathers. Studies in the History of the United States. By John Bach McMaster 334 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Romance of Commerce. By J. Macdonald Oxley, LL. B., B. A. 258 pp. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ The War of Greek Independence. By W. Alison Phillips. With map. 428 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

* Select Poems of Robert Burns. Edited, with introduction, notes, and a glossary, by Andrew J. George, M. A. 408 pp. 90 cts.—† The Princess. By Alfred Lord Tennyson. Edited with introduction and notes by Andrew J. George, M. A. 233 pp. 90 cts. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

‡ Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth. By Sydney George Fisher. 455 pp. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates and Company.

§ The Evolution of France Under the Third Republic. By Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Translated from the French by Isabel F. Hapgood. Authorized Edition. 471 pp. \$3.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- D. APPLETON & COMPANY, NEW YORK.
 Parker, Francis W. and Helm, Nellie Lathrop. Uncle Robert's Geography, III. Uncle Robert's Visit. 50 cts.
- AUTHORS' PUBLISHING ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK.
 Mills, Willis, M.D. Scarlet or White? 50 cts.
- C. W. BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.
 Bardeen, C. W. Teaching as a Business, Four Addresses. Cloth, \$1.00, Manilla, 50 cts.
- THOMAS Y. CROWELL & COMPANY, NEW YORK AND BOSTON.
 Palmer, George Herbert, LL.D. Self Culture in English. 35 cts.
 Miller, J. R., D.D. Things to Live For. \$1.00.
- W. J. COULTER, CLINTON, MASS.
 Clark, J. C. Lawrence. Tom Moore in Bermuda. A Bit of Literary Gossip.
- DODD, MEAD AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.
 Kernahan, Coulson. The Child, the Wise Man, and the Devil. 50 cts.
- EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK.
 CURTS & JENNINGS, CINCINNATI.
 Clark, Felicia Buttz. Katharine's Experiment. \$1.25.
 Canoll, Rev. Angelo. The Celestial Summons. Edited by Homer Eaton, D.D. \$1.25.
 Clark, Davis Wasgatt. From a Cloud of Witnesses. Three Hundred and Nine Tributes to the Bible. \$1.00.
 Ireland, Mary E. The Young Artists. From the German of Ernestine Helm. \$1.00.
 Leavitt, John McDowell, D.D., LL.D. The Christian Democracy. A History of Its Suppression and Revival. \$1.50.
- JAMES T. EDWARDS, MCDONOUGH, MD.
 Edwards, James T. Remarks Suggested by Three Autograph Letters of George and Martha Washington.
- ELDRIDGE AND BROTHER, PHILADELPHIA.
 Hart, John S. Revised by James Morgan Hart. A Manual of Composition and Rhetoric. \$1.00.
- GINN & COMPANY, BOSTON.
 Evans, Percy Norton, Ph.D. An Introductory Course in Quantitative Chemical Analysis. 55 cts.
 Getchell, M. S., A.M. The Study of Mediæval History by the Literary Method.
 Kent, Charles W. Shakespeare Note-book. 70 cts.
 Upton, Winslow, A.M. Star Atlas. \$2.15.
- D. C. HEATH & COMPANY, BOSTON.
 Wilson, Annie E. Compendium of United States History and Literature with Contemporary Events. 40 cts.
- B. F. JOHNSON PUBLISHING CO., RICHMOND, VA.
 Richardson, Mrs. H. H. Little Lessons in Plant Life for Little Children. 40 cts.
- JOHN KEHOE, 28 BARCLAY ST., NEW YORK.
 Vlymen, William T., Ph.D. Columbus System of Vertical Writing. In six books. Net, 50 cts. per dozen.
- WILBUR B. KETCHAM, 2 COOPER UNION, NEW YORK.
 The Tool Basket for Preachers and Teachers. Being a Collection of Sermon Outlines, Pegs of Thought, Sunday-School Addresses, etc., etc. 50 cts.
- LEE AND SHEPARD, BOSTON.
 Greene, Reuben, M.D. Thoughts for the People. Illustrating Man's Real Relation, Physically, Politically, Socially, and Religiously to the Universe of God. With practical suggestions relating to health.
- THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, NEW YORK.
 Wilson, Mrs. Lucy Langdon Williams, Ph.D. Nature Studies in Elementary Schools. 50 cts.
 Hallowell, Elizabeth Moore. Elementary Drawing. A Series of Practical Papers for Beginners. 75 cts.
 Le Conte. Caroline Eaton. The Statue in the Air. 75 cts.
 Titchener, Edward Bradford. An Outline of Psychology. \$1.50.
 Markham, Sir Clements R., K. C. B. The Paladins of Edwin the Great. \$1.50.
 Nietzsche, Friedrich. Thus Spake Zarathustra. A Book for All and None. Translated by Alexander Tille. \$2.50.
 Marshall, Emma. A Haunt of Ancient Peace. Memories of Mr. Nicholas Ferrar's House at Little Gidding, and of his Friends Dr. Donne and Mr. George Herbert. A Story. With illustrations by T. Hamilton Crawford, R. S. W. \$1.50.
 Clark, Charles Cowden. The Riches of Chaucer: In which his Impurities have been Expunged; his Spelling Modernized: His Rhythm Accentuated and his Obsolete Terms Explained. With a few explanatory notes and a new memoir of the poet. \$3.00.
- FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK AND CHICAGO.
 New Topical Text-Book. A Scripture Text-book for the use of Ministers, Teachers, and all Christian Workers. With introduction by Rev. R. A. Torrey. 25 cts.
 Ogilvie, J. N., M.A. The Guild Text Books. The Presbyterian Churches. Their Place and Power in Modern Christendom. 40 cts.
 Dawson, Sir J. William, LL.D., F.R.S., etc. Relics of Primeval Life. Beginning of Life in the Dawn of Geologic Time. With sixty-five illustrations. \$1.50.
 Harris, J. Rendell and Helen B. Letters from the Scenes of the Recent Massacres in Armenia. With map and other illustrations. \$1.25.
 Chamberlain, M.D., D.D. In the Tiger Jungle and Other Stories of Missionary Work Among the Telugus of India. With an introduction by Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D. \$1.00.
 Groat, W. H. The Ideal Prayer Meeting. Hints and Helps toward Its Realization. With an introduction by Rev. William Lawrence, D.D.
 Uchimura Kanzō. The Diary of a Japanese Convert. \$1.00.
 Vance, James I., D.D. The College of Apostles; A Study of the Twelve. 75 cts.
 Flournoy, Parke P. The Search-Light of St. Hippolytus. The Papacy and the New Testament in the Light of Discovery. With an introduction by Prof. Walter W. Moore, D.D., LL.D. \$1.00.
 White, Prof. W. W., Ph.D. Thirty Studies in the Gospel by John. 50 cts.
 Sloane, William E. The Wonderful. A Story for Young People. \$1.25.
 Dawson, Sir J. William, LL.D., F.R.S., etc. Eden Lost and Won. \$1.25.
 Author of Probable Sons, Eric's Good News, etc. Dwell Deep, or Hilda Thorn's Life Story. 75 cts.
 Wells, Amos R. When Thou Hast Shut Thy Door. A Book for the Still Hour. 60 cts.
- THE REFORM BUREAU, WASHINGTON, D. C.
 Crafts, Rev. Wilbur F., Ph.D. Lectures on Social Progress, with Outline of the Topic. A Month's Course of Reform Studies. Cloth, 50 cts.; paper 25 cts.
- ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.
 Webster, Leigh. Rich Enough. Illustrated by Elizabeth S. Pitman \$1.25.
 Bower, Marian. The Story of Mollie. \$1.00.
 Ingraham, Rev. J. H. The Prince of the House of David. Illustrated by Victor A. Searles. \$2.00.
 Ingraham, Rev. J. H. The Throne of David. Illustrated by Victor A. Searles. \$2.00.
 Ingraham, Rev. J. H. The Pillar of Fire. Illustrated by Victor A. Searles. \$2.00.
 Balfour, Marie Clothilde. Maris Stella. \$1.00.
 Nicholson, Claud. Ugly Idol. \$1.00.
 Wright, Margaret B. Hired Furnished. Being Certain Economical Housekeeping Adventures in England. \$1.25.
- SCHOOL OF EXPRESSION, 458 BOYLSTON ST., BOSTON.
 Curry, S. S., Ph.D. Imagination and Dramatic Instinct. Some Practical Steps for their Development. Vocal Expression, Course II.
- CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK.
 Henty, G. A. With Cochrane the Dauntless. With twelve illustrations by W. H. Margeson.
 Henty, G. A. At Agincourt. With twelve illustrations by Wal. Paget.
- SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY, NEW YORK, BOSTON, CHICAGO.
 Noetling, William, A.M., C.E. Elements of Constructive Geometry, Inductively Presented.
 Patten, Fred Lewis. Reading Courses in American Literature. 36 cts.
 The Silver Series of English Classics. Edited by Alexander S. Twombly: Southey's Life of Nelson; Macaulay's Essay on Milton; Macaulay's Essay on Addison; Addison's Sir Roger de Coverley Papers; Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration; De Quincey's Revolt of the Tartars; Coleridge's Rime of the Ancient Mariner. Edited by Francis R. Lane. Burke's Speech on Conciliation. Edited by Fred Lewis Patten: Shakespeare's Macbeth.
- LORRIN A. THURSTON.
 Lorrin A. Thurston. A Hand-book on the Annexation of Hawaii.
- ANNE THROOP, NEW YORK.
 Throop, Anne. Whisperings of a Wind-Harp. With a prose poem introduction by Sadakichi Hartmann. \$1.00.
- JOHN TROWBRIDGE.
 Trowbridge, John. Electrical Discharges in Air.
 Trowbridge, John. The Energy Conditions Necessary to Produce the Roentgen Rays.
- THE YOUTH'S ADVOCATE PUBLISHING CO., NASHVILLE, TENN.
 Fielder, E. D. The Story of the Alamo. 25 cts.

